



FACULTAD DE MEDICINA

Departamento de Medicina Preventiva,

Salud Pública y Microbiología

EVALUACIÓN DE DOS PROCEDIMIENTOS
QUIRÚRGICOS MEDIANTE METAANÁLISIS Y
ANÁLISIS DE COSTE EFECTIVIDAD

TESIS DOCTORAL

SERGIO MAESO MARTÍNEZ

Madrid, 2014



FACULTAD DE MEDICINA

**Departamento de Medicina Preventiva,
Salud Pública y Microbiología**

Evaluación de dos procedimientos
quirúrgicos mediante metaanálisis y
análisis de coste efectividad

Tesis doctoral

Sergio Maeso Martínez

Director

Dr. Fernando Rodríguez Artalejo

Madrid, 2014

Informe del director



D. Fernando Rodríguez Artalejo, Catedrático de Medicina Preventiva y Salud Pública de la Universidad Autónoma de Madrid,

INFORMA: que D. Sergio Maeso Martínez ha realizado bajo su dirección el trabajo titulado “Evaluación de dos procedimientos quirúrgicos mediante metaanálisis y análisis de coste efectividad”. Se trata de un trabajo original, rigurosamente realizado, y es apto para ser defendido públicamente con el fin de obtener el grado de doctor.

Para que así conste y surta los efectos oportunos, se firma este documento en Madrid, a 7 de enero de 2014

AGRADECIMIENTOS

A Fernando Rodríguez Artalejo por prestarse a ser mi director de tesis.

A Juan Antonio Blasco Amaro y a Elena Andradas Aragonés por dirigirme durante mis años de trabajo en la Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias de la Agencia Laín Entralgo.

A Mercedes Reza Goyanes, a Daniel Callejo Velasco y a Mercedes Guerra Rodríguez, mis compañeros en la Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias por ayudarme en la realización de las publicaciones que contiene esta tesis.

A Julio Ángel Mayol Martínez por su opinión de experto durante la preparación de los manuscritos.

A Rodolfo Hernández por introducirme en el mundo de la evaluación económica y guiarme durante mi estancia en la Universidad de Aberdeen.

A Luke Vale de la Universidad de Aberdeen por sus útiles comentarios.

A Graham Mowatt y sus colegas de la Universidad de Aberdeen, por brindarnos una revisión sistemática de la literatura.

A Luis de la Fuente de Hoz y a Gregorio Barrio Anta por animarme a realizar la tesis.

A mis compañeros de trabajo en la Agencia Laín Entralgo y el Instituto de Salud Carlos III por compartir nuestro tiempo y esfuerzos.

A mis maestros y profesores por enseñarme tantas cosas.

A mi familia y amigos por comprenderme.

ÍNDICE GENERAL

| | |
|---|-----------|
| ALCANCE DE LA TESIS..... | 3 |
| ACRÓNIMOS Y ABREVIATURAS..... | 4 |
| 1. INTRODUCCIÓN | 5 |
| 1.1. Equipo quirúrgico da Vinci..... | 6 |
| 1.2. Ecodopler transesofágico | 12 |
| 2. OBJETIVOS..... | 18 |
| 2.1. Objetivos | 19 |
| 2.2. Desarrollo..... | 20 |
| 3. METODOLOGÍA..... | 21 |
| 3.1. Artículo 1..... | 22 |
| 3.2. Artículo 2..... | 27 |
| 3.3. Artículo 3..... | 30 |
| 4. ARTÍCULO 1: Efficacy of the da Vinci Surgical System in abdominal surgery compared with that of laparoscopy. A systematic review and meta-analysis..... | 38 |
| 5. ARTÍCULO 2: Meta-analysis of observational studies on the safety and effectiveness of robotic gynaecological surgery.. | 49 |
| 6. ARTÍCULO 3: Esophageal Doppler monitoring during colorectal resection offers cost-effective improvement of hemodynamic control..... | 63 |
| 7. DISCUSIÓN..... | 72 |
| 8.1. Artículo 1..... | 73 |
| 8.2. Artículo 2..... | 78 |
| 8.3. Artículo 3..... | 83 |

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 8. CONCLUSIONES | 87 |
| 9.1. Conclusiones del Objetivo 1 | 88 |
| 9.2. Conclusiones del Objetivo 2 | 89 |
| 9.3. Conclusiones del Objetivo 3 | 90 |
| 9. ÍNDICE DE TABLAS Y FIGURAS | 91 |
| 10.1. Índice de tablas | 92 |
| 10.2. Índice de figuras | 92 |
| 10.BIBLIOGRAFÍA..... | 93 |

ALCANCE DE LA TESIS

Esta tesis se presenta como un compendio de los tres artículos siguientes:

- Artículo 1:

Maeso S, Reza M, Mayol JA, Blasco JA, Guerra M, Andradas E, Plana MN. Efficacy of the Da Vinci surgical system in abdominal surgery compared with that of laparoscopy: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Ann Surg*. 2010 Aug;252(2):254-62. doi: 10.1097/SLA.0b013e3181e6239e. Review. PubMed PMID: 20622659. (JCR Impact Factor 2012: 6.329)

- Artículo 2:

Reza M, Maeso S, Blasco JA, Andradas E. Meta-analysis of observational studies on the safety and effectiveness of robotic gynaecological surgery. *Br J Surg*. 2010 Dec;97(12):1772-83. doi: 10.1002/bjs.7269. Review. PubMed PMID: 20949554. (JCR Impact Factor 2012: 4.839)

- Artículo 3:

Maeso S, Callejo D, Hernández R, Blasco JA, Andradas E. Esophageal Doppler monitoring during colorectal resection offers cost-effective improvement of hemodynamic control. *Value Health*. 2011 Sep-Oct;14(6):818-26. doi: 10.1016/j.jval.2011.02.1176. PubMed PMID: 21914501. (JCR Impact Factor 2012: 2.191)

ACRÓNIMOS Y ABREVIATURAS

| | |
|--------------|----------------------------------|
| CA: | Cirugía abierta. |
| CL: | Cirugía laparoscópica. |
| ECA: | Ensayo clínico aleatorizado. |
| ECC: | Evaluación clínica convencional. |
| EDTE: | Ecodoppler transesofágico. |
| EQDV: | Equipo quirúrgico da Vinci. |
| PVC: | Presión venosa central. |

1. INTRODUCCIÓN

1.1. Equipo quirúrgico da Vinci

Todos somos conscientes de los grandes avances conseguidos en materia sanitaria durante los dos últimos siglos, especialmente en el campo de la cirugía. El descubrimiento de la anestesia, la antisepsia, y el control de la pérdida de sangre revolucionaron de forma trascendental esta complicada disciplina que, en la actualidad, no parece tener límites gracias a la introducción de las nuevas tecnologías. La amplia aceptación de la cirugía laparoscópica en el mundo de la cirugía general desde su introducción en 1.988 ha dado lugar a la aplicación de numerosos procedimientos para el enfoque mínimamente invasivo, muchos pacientes se han beneficiado. La reducción en el trauma quirúrgico que implica se traduce en beneficios tales como una más rápida recuperación postoperatoria y resultados cosméticos más aceptables. El desarrollo de este tipo de cirugía ha dado lugar a la aparición de diferentes técnicas, incluyendo “cirugía robótica”.

La “cirugía robótica” es una tecnología emergente que permite realizar procesos laparoscópicos en múltiples indicaciones quirúrgicas. Se comenzó a utilizar en el año 2.000, después de ser aprobada por la FDA (Food and Drug Administration). Se han desarrollado varios equipos de cirugía robótica como el Sistema Automatizado Endoscópico para un Posicionamiento Óptimo (AESOP Automated Endoscopic System for Optimal Positioning, Computer Motion, Santa Barbara, California, USA), el Sistema quirúrgico Zeus (Zeus Surgical System®, Computer Motion) o Da Vinci Surgical System® (EQDV, Intuitive Surgical Inc., Mountain View, Sunnyvale, California, USA). El AESOP fue el primer dispositivo robótico aprobado por la FDA estadounidense y proporciona control del laparoscopio mediante programación activada por voz. Un segundo sistema, el Zeus Surgical System proporciona visión bidimensional con control remoto de los brazos robóticos incorporados a la mesa quirúrgica, pero este sistema no se distribuye actualmente. El sistema más reciente y difundido en la evolución de la cirugía asistida robóticamente es el equipo quirúrgico da Vinci (EQDV). El EQDV es el único sistema robótico aprobado por la FDA actualmente en el mercado. En Europa, el

sistema da Vinci tiene autorización reglamentaria completa y tiene derecho a colocar la marca CE para el sistema.

El dispositivo EQDV es un robot dirigido a través de un ordenador, que permite a los cirujanos operar en determinadas áreas del cuerpo mediante incisiones más pequeñas. Este sistema aporta potencialmente al cirujano los beneficios de la cirugía mediante laparotomía con las ventajas de la cirugía mínimamente invasiva para el paciente. Se trata de un sistema con el cual el cirujano dirige los brazos del robot a través de una consola mediante unas manijas y pedales con ayuda de un visor estereoscópico. Los movimientos de las manos del cirujano son digitalizados y transmitidos a los brazos robóticos que realizan idénticos movimientos en el campo quirúrgico. Los brazos robóticos disponen de una articulación intraabdominal con tantos grados de libertad que les hace comparables a la mano humana y un sistema que filtra el temblor de los movimientos. El cirujano ve el campo quirúrgico en una pantalla a través de un visor binocular situado en la consola de control que le proporciona una visión tridimensional. Las imágenes muestran el área intraoperatoria y los instrumentos quirúrgicos montados en los extremos de los brazos articulados del robot. Los movimientos de los brazos del robot cesan si los ojos del cirujano se apartan de la pantalla (1).

Aunque el término general de "cirugía robótica" se usa a menudo para referirse a la tecnología, este término puede dar la impresión de que el robot ejecuta por sí solo la cirugía cosa que no es cierto porque no lo puede hacer, no puede actuar en forma autónoma. Lo que hace es replicar a escala y en forma precisa los movimientos que el cirujano hace en la consola de control. Debe recordarse, sin embargo, que los brazos robóticos siguen los movimientos del cirujano, con lo cual la experiencia del médico, su habilidad y capacidad de juicio durante la intervención influyen en el resultado de las cirugías realizadas.

La consola de control y los brazos robóticos están conectados a través de un cable de datos, y en EEUU la FDA sólo permite la utilización de este sistema quirúrgico estando el cirujano y la consola de control en la misma sala que el paciente. Es posible realizar telecirugía, sin la presencia del cirujano en la misma habitación que el paciente, aunque con limitaciones debido a la lentitud en la velocidad de transferencia de datos disponible hasta el momento. El impacto de la robótica en la Medicina ha propiciado el desarrollo de nuevos aspectos de esta ciencia, tales como la telecirugía (cirugía que permite al cirujano operar a distancia). En 2.001 el doctor Marecaux llevó a cabo la primera operación telerrobótica (el cirujano se encuentra sentado frente a una consola de ordenador en una ubicación distinta de la del paciente) mediante el sistema quirúrgico Zeus. Se trataba de una colecistectomía realizada por cirujanos ubicados en Nueva York (EEUU) a un paciente de 62 años con colelitiasis ingresado en Estrasburgo (Francia).

Las ventajas que se atribuyen a este sistema son una mayor precisión, menos errores, menor trauma para el paciente, cicatrices más pequeñas, menos anestesia, menos sangrado, menos tiempo de hospitalización y recuperación más rápida del paciente, con menos dolor. Se ha señalado que es más fácil de aprender esta técnica que la laparoscopia convencional (2). Aporta también ventajas ergonómicas para el cirujano. Se han detectado problemas en su aplicación como han sido la falta de retroalimentación táctil, el tiempo requerido para la intervención, los costes o la curva de aprendizaje necesaria (2).

El EQDV puede costar alrededor de un millón de dólares en sus versiones iniciales y hasta dos millones en sus últimas versiones. Existen versiones con tres y cuatro brazos. Cada instrumento quirúrgico diseñado para los brazos del robot puede ser utilizado durante un máximo de diez procedimientos.

A pesar de que la cirugía robótica se encuentra en una etapa muy temprana, numerosos profesionales han comenzado a implementar en su práctica diaria esta tecnología emergente. El EQDV se está utilizando en intervenciones quirúrgicas de Cirugía Urológica, General y Digestiva, Ginecológica y Cardiorádica (3). Se está utilizando en intervenciones quirúrgicas como son la prostatectomía radical, pieloplastia, nefrectomía, cistectomía, cirugía esofágica, cirugía bariátrica, colecistectomía, resección colorrectal, histerectomía y cirugía cardíaca septal y valvular.

La prostatectomía radical es la intervención quirúrgica más frecuente de todas las que se realizan con este sistema. En menos de una década la prostatectomía radical laparoscópica asistida por robot se ha convertido en la técnica quirúrgica más utilizada para el tratamiento del cáncer de próstata. En 2.009 el número de prostatectomías robóticas realizadas ya superaba las 60.000, debido al entusiasmo por parte de los médicos, el interés de los pacientes y unas eficaces campañas de promoción comercial. Hoy en día más del 85% de las prostatectomías radicales llevadas a cabo en EEUU se realizan mediante asistencia robótica, aunque aún quedan escépticos que hacen hincapié en que debe demostrarse con resultados científicamente probados que esta técnica es segura y eficaz, más allá de las especulaciones, las promesas o la mercadotecnia.

Las ventajas respecto a las técnicas convencionales son que la recuperación del control miccional dentro de los tres primeros meses es más rápido que con la cirugía laparoscópica o con la abierta, debido a la mayor precisión en la disección de los tejidos. Además, cuando se realiza una técnica de preservación de las bandeletas o nervios erectores, ésta se consigue en una proporción mayor de pacientes, cuestión que favorece una conservación más efectiva de la potencia sexual y además una mayor integridad del esfínter de la uretra, gracias a una disección mucho más fina y anatómica.

La pérdida de sangre durante la intervención, y por tanto la necesidad de transfusiones, se sitúa un 25% por debajo de las exigencias de la cirugía abierta, porcentaje similar al del procedimiento laparoscópico. El ingreso hospitalario que se precisa tras una intervención de prostatectomía radical robótica también es parecido al de la laparoscopia, situado entre 2 y 3 días, frente a los 5 de una cirugía convencional. El tiempo de intervención con el EQDV se prolonga durante 4 o 5 horas y en todos los casos se aplica anestesia general.

En un reciente informe de evaluación de esta tecnología realizado en Bélgica (2) se refiere que ya se han instalado alrededor de 1.000 EQDV y se aporta información sobre el número de dispositivos por habitante en distintos países. En este análisis destacan EEUU y Bélgica con más de 1,5 dispositivos por millón de habitantes, mientras que en la mayoría de los países que han adquirido esta tecnología disponen de menos de 0,5 dispositivos por millón de habitantes. España ocupa el 15º puesto de los 19 países incluidos.

En España hay actualmente veintiún centros que utilizan el robot quirúrgico da Vinci su presencia es similar en centros públicos y privados. De hecho, da Vinci está en los Servicios de Cirugía de once hospitales públicos españoles (Virgen del Rocío de Sevilla, Carlos Haya de Málaga, Clínico San Carlos de Madrid, Bellvitge, Vall d'Hebrón, Txagorritxu, Basurto, Donostia, Marqués de Valdecilla y Móstoles) y de diez centros privados (HM Hospitales, Fundación Puigvert, Zarzuela, Ruber Internacional, Policlínica de Guipúzcoa, Virgen Blanca, Clínica Universitaria de Navarra, Quirón, Teknon y Torrevieja).

Uno de los objetivos de esta tesis es evaluar la efectividad y seguridad del EQDV en comparación con la cirugía laparoscópica convencional en las intervenciones quirúrgicas de cirugía abdominal en pacientes adultos en las que se está utilizando. En

este trabajo nos centraremos en las indicaciones propias de la cirugía general y digestiva como la funduplicatura, el bypass gástrico, la colecistectomía y la resección colorrectal, entre otras.

La aprobación de la FDA su uso para procedimientos ginecológicos, en abril de 2.005 sobre la base de los resultados de trabajo pionero en el que se utiliza este sistema para llevar a cabo miotomías (4). Desde entonces, el interés en este sistema para su uso en la cirugía ginecológica ha aumentado rápidamente. Esta tesis sintetiza los resultados publicados sobre el uso de EQDV en procedimientos ginecológicos, con el objetivo de evaluar su seguridad y eficacia en comparación con la cirugía laparoscópica y la cirugía abierta.

1.2. Ecodoppler transesofágico

El riesgo de un evento mortal en anestesia se ha estimado entre 1/20.000. En la mayoría de los casos, el estado previo de salud constituye el factor determinante más importante ya que la existencia de enfermedades cardiorespiratorias o neumológicas graves predispone a la aparición de complicaciones perioperatorias graves. No obstante, esporádicamente se producen complicaciones graves relativamente inesperadas en pacientes sin factores de riesgo conocidos. Estos casos se han relacionado con situaciones de hipovolemia, hipoxia, hipotensión, ventilación inadecuada, etc. no detectadas por falta de atención, experiencia del anestesiólogo y, sobre todo, a la ausencia de información precoz sobre el estado funcional del paciente. Al objeto de establecer una estrategia de actuación anestésica adecuada a cada circunstancia que permita la identificación precoz de los problemas se recomienda la monitorización de los pacientes anestesiados.

Monitorización es el proceso de reconocimiento y evaluación periódica de potenciales problemas fisiológicos e implica observar y vigilar al paciente, utilizar una instrumentación adecuada a cada caso y capacidad para interpretar de forma correcta los datos. De la valoración conjunta de esta información se adoptarán las decisiones terapéuticas correctoras tendentes a disminuir las complicaciones perioperatorias. La monitorización aumenta la seguridad del paciente, permite la identificación precoz de problemas que pueden originar lesiones graves o irreversibles, incrementa la precisión y especificidad de los juicios clínicos y evita la fatiga y la falta de atención del anestesiólogo mientras practica técnicas rutinarias y repetitivas.

La práctica de la anestesia requiere la monitorización de un mínimo de constantes y funciones vitales mediante la instrumentación adecuada. Estos mínimos han sido aceptados por la mayoría de las sociedades anestesiológicas mundiales. Sin embargo, la presencia de una instrumentación adecuada no exime de realizar

periódicas comprobaciones del estado del paciente mediante la inspección, palpación o auscultación. Esto se debe a que los instrumentos de monitorización pueden ofrecer una información errónea o incompleta al estar sometidos a posibles interferencias procedentes de otros instrumentos. Además, la monitorización es costosa y aporta riesgos adicionales a la anestesia (realización de prácticas invasivas) por lo que debe existir una adecuada proporción entre el nivel de monitorización, las características del paciente y el tipo de intervención quirúrgica.

La monitorización hemodinámica es un elemento clave en el cuidado de los pacientes críticos, proporcionando una ayuda incuestionable en la asistencia al diagnóstico y en la elección de un tratamiento adecuado. Los dispositivos mínimamente invasivos han ido emergiendo durante los últimos años como una alternativa eficaz frente a las herramientas clásicas de monitorización. Entre ellos el ecodoppler transesofágico (EDTE), que permite, mediante la medición de la velocidad del flujo sanguíneo y el diámetro de la aorta torácica descendente, una monitorización continua y mínimamente invasiva del gasto cardíaco, además de otros parámetros igualmente útiles, proporcionando una visión suficientemente amplia del estado hemodinámico del paciente y facilitando la detección precoz de los cambios producidos por un deterioro clínico brusco.

La optimización del gasto cardíaco y la función hemodinámica ha sido considerada como un elemento clave para la mejora de la atención de los pacientes críticamente enfermos y de alto riesgo quirúrgico. El gasto cardíaco óptimo después de la cirugía se asocia con una mejor perfusión de los tejidos, lo que resulta en menos isquemia tisular, menos lesiones después de la reperfusión, tasas de infección más bajas, una mejor cicatrización, y reducción de la tensión cardíaca (5).

La hipoperfusión intraoperatoria del intestino se ha identificado en más del 60% de los pacientes sometidos a cirugía mayor, un problema asociado con una mayor

morbilidad y una estancia hospitalaria más prolongada (6). El consenso es que la hipoperfusión tisular y la activación de la inflamación sistémica deben ser evitados (7). La monitorización con el EDTE proporciona una representación instantánea de la función hemodinámica latido a latido, por lo tanto, permite la rápida corrección de la hipovolemia y el débito de oxígeno (8). La orientación precisa proporcionada por el EDTE relativo a la necesidad de fluidos intraoperatoria podía reducir el riesgo de lesión de los tejidos (7).

El EDTE es una de las opciones de monitorización hemodinámicas mínimamente invasivos desarrollados para evitar la necesidad de cateterización de la arteria pulmonar. Esta última técnica ha sido abandonada gradualmente en muchos países debido a la falta de evidencia de que proporcione algún beneficio a los pacientes, los riesgos que conlleva su utilización, y sus costes asociados (9;10). Otras alternativas a la cateterización de la arteria pulmonar incluyen ecocardiografía transesofágica, los sistemas basados en el análisis de la onda del pulso, y los métodos de dilución. Sin embargo, debido a la falta de datos, estos métodos no se consideran en el presente trabajo.

El EDTE mide la velocidad del flujo sanguíneo en la aorta torácica descendente utilizando una sonda ultrasónica flexible que se inserta a través de la boca o la nariz en el esófago del paciente. En resumen, la medición de la velocidad del flujo sanguíneo en combinación con una estimación del área de sección transversal de la aorta (derivado de un nomograma de acuerdo con la edad, la altura y el peso del paciente, o por cálculo directo a través de formación de imágenes ecográficas) permite la monitorización continua del gasto cardíaco y estado hemodinámico. Además, si se conocen los valores tales como la presión venosa central y la presión arterial, otras variables tales como la resistencia vascular sistémica pueden ser estimadas. El entrenamiento necesario para utilizar el EDTE es mínimo y la técnica tiene un buen perfil de seguridad. Sin embargo, la sonda no es generalmente bien tolerada por los pacientes conscientes y su uso está restringido normalmente a los pacientes bajo

sedación o anestesia - que suele ser el caso en la cirugía y cuidados críticos. Más detalles sobre el uso y contraindicaciones del EDTE se describen en detalle en otras publicaciones (11;12).

La evaluación clínica convencional (ECC) de los pacientes quirúrgicos implica la evaluación no invasiva de numerosas variables, incluyendo variables hemodinámicas tales como la frecuencia cardíaca, la presión arterial sistólica, y el volumen de orina. De acuerdo con la política del hospital y preferencias clínicas, la ECC puede incluir el uso de un catéter venoso central para la medición de la presión venosa central (PVC).

Varias revisiones sistemáticas han sido publicadas sobre la eficacia clínica del EDTE (13;14), además se ha estudiado en 10 ensayos clínicos aleatorizados (7;8;15-22). Dos de ellos se refieren a su uso en unidades de cuidados intensivos (15;18), mientras que ocho se refieren a su uso intraquirúrgico (7;8;16;17;19-22) (un estudio cirugía cardíaca (19), un estudio en varios tipos de cirugía mayor (17), dos en la reparación de la fractura femoral (20;21) y cuatro en la cirugía de resección colorrectal (7;8;16;22)).

Los últimos cuatro ECA fueron incluidos en una revisión sistemática reciente (14). Tres de ellos fueron incluidos en la revisión de la Agencia para la Investigación y Calidad (AHRQ) (23) y fueron considerados de alta calidad basados en una encuesta de 25 preguntas. Estos cuatro ECA compararon diferentes estrategias e incluyeron diferentes medidas de resultado intermedias (como, la duración de la cirugía, la terapia de fluidos administrados, la duración de la estancia hospitalaria, la admisión en una UCI) y finales (como las complicaciones y la mortalidad) (ver Tabla 1).

Tabla 1: Resumen de los datos disponibles de los ensayos clínicos aleatorizados sobre el uso de la monitorización con ecodoppler transesofágico durante la cirugía de resección colorrectal electiva.

| | Conway, 2002 | Wakeling, 2005 | Noble, 2006 | Dodd, 2007 |
|----------------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| Pacientes (n) | 55 (29 vs. 28) | 128 (64 vs. 64) | 103 (51 vs. 52) | 40 (20 vs. 20) |
| Comparaciones | ECC+PVC+EDTE vs. ECC+ PVC | ECC+ PVC+ EDTE vs. ECC+ PVC | ECC+ PVC+ EDTE vs. ECC+ PVC | ECC+ EDTE vs. ECC |
| Mortalidad | | | | |
| Número de muertes | 0; 1 | 0; 1 | 0; 1 | 1; 2 |
| Valor p | NI | NI | 0,990 | NI |
| Estancia en UCI | | | | |
| Complicaciones mayores (n) | 0; 5 | NI | 0; 6 | 7; 5 |
| Valor p | 0,020 | NI | NI | NI |
| Mediana (rango) | 0; 3(1-5) | NI | NI | 3(2-10); 2(5-10) |
| Complicaciones totales | | | | |
| Número de complicaciones | 5; 9 | 24; 38 | 13; 22 | NI |
| Valor p | NI | 0,050 | 0,043 | NI |
| Estancia hospitalaria | | | | |
| Mediana (RIC) | 12(7-103); 11(7-30) (1) | 10(5,75); 11.5(4,75) | 7(3-35); 9(4-45) | 8(5-34); 9(5-27) |
| Valor p | NI | 0,031 | 0,005 | >0,050 |
| Administración de fluidos | | | | |
| Cristaloides (ml, mediana) | NI | 3.000; 3.000 | 2.298; 2.625 | 2.875; 2.325 |
| Valor p | NI | > 0,050 | 0,077 | NI |
| Coloides (ml, mediana) | 28; 19,4 (2) | 2.000; 1.500 | 1.340; 1.209 | 1.355; 1.000 |
| Valor p | 0,020 | < 0,010 | 0,397 | NI |
| Total (ml, mediana) | 64,6; 55,2 (2) | 5.000; 4.500 | 3.638; 3.864 | 4.230; 3.325 |
| Valor p | > 0,050 | NI | NI | NI |

EDTE: ecodoppler transesofágico; PVC: presión venosa central; ECC: evaluación clínica convencional;
UCI: unidad de cuidados intensivos; NI: no indicado; RIC: rango intercuartílico; (1) rango total; (2) ml/kg.

El pequeño tamaño de estos ECA no permite obtener conclusiones sólidas que se pueden extraer en relación con las tasas de mortalidad. Sin embargo, dado que estos estudios proporcionan la mejor evidencia disponible, las tasas de mortalidad registradas fueron incluidas en los análisis realizados en el presente trabajo. En cada uno de los tres estudios que comparan ECC además de la medición de la PVC más EDTE (ECC+PVC+EDTE) frente a ECC+PVC (7;8;22) un paciente murió en el grupo de control. En la comunicación realizada por Dodd (16) hubo tres muertes, una en el grupo de ECC+EDTE, y dos en el grupo de ECC.

Las complicaciones más comunes registradas fueron la neumonía, infección de la herida quirúrgica, dehiscencia de la herida y arritmias. Conway (8) y Noblett (7) notificaron que ningún paciente en sus grupos de ECC+PVC+EDTE requirió de cuidados críticos, mientras que el 18% (n=5) y 12% (n=6) requirió de cuidados críticos en el brazo ECC+PVC de cada estudio. Dodd (16) notificó, sin embargo, que el 35% (n=7) de su ECC+EDTE y el 25% (n=5) de sus pacientes ECC requirió de cuidados críticos. Tres de los cuatro ECA (7;8;22) examinados notificaron menos complicaciones totales en el grupo con EDTE, dos informaron estas diferencias son significativas (7;22). Además, dos de los cuatro ECA (7;22) notificaron una menor estancia hospitalaria estadísticamente significativa para los pacientes en los grupos con EDTE. Por lo tanto, el uso de EDTE parece reducir la tasa de complicaciones y la estancia en el hospital.

Hasta donde sabemos, no se han realizado evaluaciones económicas completas de este dispositivo en distintos entornos quirúrgicos, todas estas evaluaciones deberían tener en cuenta un entorno médico específico (24).

El objetivo del presente trabajo fue evaluar, desde la perspectiva del sistema sanitario público español, el coste-efectividad de la optimización de la función hemodinámica guiada por EDTE comparación con ECC en pacientes sometidos a cirugía colorectal, con base en los resultados quirúrgicos a corto plazo.

2. OBJETIVOS

2.1. Objetivos

1.- Comparar la seguridad y eficacia del sistema quirúrgico da Vinci con la cirugía laparoscópica convencional en diferentes intervenciones de cirugía general y digestiva.

2.- Comparar la seguridad y eficacia del sistema quirúrgico da Vinci con la cirugía laparoscópica convencional y la cirugía abierta en diferentes intervenciones ginecológicas.

3.- Evaluar la eficiencia de la monitorización del flujo sanguíneo con ecodoppler transesofágico durante la cirugía de resección colorrectal.

2.2. Desarrollo

El primer objetivo se desarrolla en el artículo 1: “Efficacy of the da vinci surgical system in abdominal surgery compared with that of laparoscopy: a systematic review and meta-analysis”. Este trabajo ha sido publicado en la revista *Annals of Surgery* 2010 Aug;252(2):254-262 (se incluye copia de este artículo en el capítulo 5 de esta tesis).

El segundo objetivo se desarrolla en el artículo 2: “Meta-analysis of observational studies on safety and effectiveness of robotic gynecological surgery”. Este trabajo ha sido publicado en la revista *British Journal of Surgery*. 2010;97: 1772-1783 (se incluye copia de este artículo en el capítulo 6 de esta tesis).

El tercer objetivo se desarrolla en el artículo 3: “Esophageal doppler monitoring during colorectal resection offers cost-effective improvement of hemodynamic control”. Este trabajo ha sido publicado en la revista *Value in Health* 2011; 818-826 (se incluye copia de este artículo en el capítulo 7 de esta tesis).

3. METODOLOGÍA

3.1. Artículo 1

Hemos realizado una revisión sistemática de la literatura en la que se analiza la mejor evidencia científica disponible sobre la eficacia y seguridad del EQDV en cirugía abdominal. Se llevó a cabo una búsqueda bibliográfica exhaustiva mediante la que se buscaron revisiones sistemáticas e informes de evaluación en las bases de datos del Center for Reviews and Dissemination (CRD) de la University of York: DARE y HTA Database, en la base de datos de revisiones sistemáticas Cochrane (a través de la Biblioteca Cochrane Plus) y en Hayes (independent Health Technology Research and Consulting Company). Se localizó una revisión sistemática de buena calidad (25) publicada en 2004 (26) sobre esta tecnología, con lo cual se recuperaron los textos completos de los artículos incluidos en dicha revisión y se actualizó la evidencia con la búsqueda de estudios primarios publicados a partir de 2003, en las bases de datos generales Medline, Embase y Cinahl. Se utilizaron los siguientes términos de búsqueda: Da Vinci (tw) OR Davinci (tw) OR ((robotics (MESH) OR robot* (tw)) AND surg* (tw)). La estrategia de búsqueda detallada para cada una de las bases de datos se muestra en la figura 1. La búsqueda se actualizó hasta el 17 de Agosto de 2009. También se realizó una búsqueda manual a partir de las referencias bibliográficas de los artículos incluidos en la revisión.

Figura 1. Estrategias de búsqueda bibliográfica de los objetivos 1 y 2

Cinhal

1. Robotics/
2. "robot*".ab,ti.
3. 1 or 2
4. (da vinci or davinci).mp. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
5. surg*.mp. [mp=title, subject heading word, abstract, instrumentation]
6. 3 and 5
7. 4 or 6
8. limit 7 to yr="2004 - 2008"
9. limit 8 to "review"
10. 8 not 9

Embase

1. robotics/
2. "robot*".ab,ti.
3. 1 or 2
4. (davinci or da vinci).mp. [mp=title, abstract, subject headings, heading word, drug trade name, original title, device manufacturer, drug manufacturer name]
5. surg*.mp. [mp=title, abstract, subject headings, heading word, drug trade name, original title, device manufacturer, drug manufacturer name]
6. 3 and 5
7. 4 or 6
8. limit 7 to yr="2004 - 2008"
9. limit 8 to animals
10. limit 8 to animal studies
11. limit 8 to (book or editorial or letter or "review")
12. 9 or 10 or 11
13. 8 not 12

Medline

1. robotics/
2. "robot*".ab,ti.
3. 1 or 2
4. (da vinci or davinci).mp. [mp=title, original title, abstract, name of substance word, subject heading word]
5. surg*.mp. [mp=title, original title, abstract, name of substance word, subject heading word]
6. 3 and 5
7. 4 or 6
8. limit 7 to yr="2004 - 2008"
9. limit 8 to animals
10. limit 8 to (comment or editorial or letter or "review")
11. 9 or 10
12. 8 not 11

Se incluyeron en la revisión estudios realizados en humanos en los que se comparara el EQDV con la cirugía laparoscópica en cirugía general y digestiva. Se excluyeron los estudios en pacientes pediátricos, sin grupo control, estudios en animales, o en cadáveres.

Se evaluó la calidad de los estudios incluidos utilizando un checklist basado en el cuestionario de Guyatt et al (27;28) mediante el que se analizan aspectos de la calidad metodológica de los estudios. Los ítems del check list utilizado para evaluar la calidad de los estudios fueron los siguientes: 1. ¿Se orienta el ensayo a una pregunta claramente definida? (objetivo, ver figura 3); 2. ¿Se asignó a los pacientes al grupo de tratamiento de manera aleatorizada? (aleatorización); 3. ¿Se llevó adecuadamente la cuenta de todos los pacientes que entraron al inicio del estudio y cuando concluyó el estudio? (seguimiento); 4. ¿Hubo cegamiento de pacientes, clínicos, y personal del estudio respecto al tratamiento? (cegamiento); 5. ¿Los grupos fueron similares al inicio del estudio? (características basales); 6. ¿Aparte de la intervención experimental, los grupos fueron tratados igualmente? (intervención).

Se utilizó un formulario de extracción de datos para la recogida de la información relevante de los estudios: diseño, tamaño muestral, centro hospitalario, características de la intervención, características de la tecnología de comparación, objetivos, características de los pacientes y resultados.

Para el análisis de los resultados se realizaron metaanálisis para cada variable de resultado indicada en al menos dos estudios. Se consideran resultados estadísticamente significativos aquellos con un valor p menor o igual a 0,05, tanto para interpretar los resultados de los estudios primarios como los resultados de los metaanálisis realizados. Cuando se requirió se combinaron varios subgrupos de un mismo estudio para poder incluirlo en el metaanálisis como un solo grupo de

comparación (29). En primer lugar se estudia la posible heterogeneidad de los estudios tanto clínica como estadística. Sólo se procede a realizar un metaanálisis cuando se considera que la heterogeneidad clínica entre los estudios es baja. Se considera heterogeneidad estadística elevada cuando el estadístico I^2 es mayor o igual al 50% y baja cuando es menor del 50%. Se utilizó el método de efectos fijos (EF) cuando la heterogeneidad estadística era baja y el método de efectos aleatorios (EA) cuando la heterogeneidad estadística era elevada.

Para variables dicotómicas se realizó metaanálisis de la odds ratio (OR) con el método de Mantel-Haenszel (MH), ya que se trata en la mayoría de los casos de estudios de tamaño muestral relativamente pequeño. En el caso de metaanálisis de variables dicotómicas con algún estudio sin eventos en ninguno de los dos grupos, o con todos los pacientes presentando el evento en ambos grupos, se realizan metaanálisis para la diferencia de riesgos con el método de MH, para poder incluir la información aportada por estos estudios.

Para variables continuas se realizó metaanálisis de la diferencia de medias según el método de la inversa de la varianza (IV). En el caso de variables recogidas en distintas escalas se utilizó la diferencia estandarizada de medias. Cuando se requirió combinar subgrupos de un mismo estudio para poder realizar metaanálisis se utilizaron las fórmulas para obtener la media y desviación estándar conjunta recomendadas por Higgins et al (29). Cuando solamente se disponía de la mediana se utilizó esta como una estimación de la media (29;30). En aquellos estudios en los que no se indicaba el valor de la desviación estándar (DE) esta se calculó a partir del error estándar de la media (EEM), intervalo de confianza (IC) al 95%, valor t, valor p o rango intercuartílico (29). Igualmente cuando se disponía exclusivamente del rango total se calculó a partir del mismo la DE (30), aplicándose la fórmula rango total/4. En el caso del tiempo de estancia cuando un estudio sólo presentaba el periodo postoperatorio se utilizó este como aproximación a la estancia total.

Para la realización de los metaanálisis y la representación gráfica de los mismos se emplea la aplicación informática Review Manager (RevMan) [Computer program]. Version 5.0. Copenhagen: The Nordic Cochrane Centre, The Cochrane Collaboration, 2008.

Cuando al menos la mitad de los estudios encontrados presentaron información suficiente para la realización de un metaanálisis se extrajeron las conclusiones del mismo y en los otros casos del análisis del conjunto de los estudios primarios de forma individualizada. En aquellos casos en los que existían ECA y estudios controlados no aleatorizados, cuando al menos la mitad de los estudios encontrados fueron ECA se extrajeron las conclusiones del análisis de los mismos y en los otros casos del análisis conjunto de ambos tipos de estudios.

3.2. Artículo 2

Se realizó una revisión sistemática de la literatura, en la que se analizó la mejor evidencia respecto a la seguridad y la eficacia del EQDV en el ámbito ginecológico. Se hizo una búsqueda exhaustiva de revisiones sistemáticas e informes de evaluación publicados en las bases de datos del Centro de Revisiones y Difusión (CRD) (bases de datos Resúmenes de Revisiones de Efectos [DARE] y Evaluación de Tecnologías en Salud [HTA]), la Colaboración Cochrane y Hayes Inc. Se encontró una sola revisión sistemática de buena calidad (publicado en 2004) (26), que analizaba el EQDV; todos los textos citados en este trabajo fueron recogidos para su análisis. También se realizó una búsqueda manual utilizando las referencias citadas en esos artículos y fueron contactados expertos en cirugía. Además, los estudios primarios publicados a partir de 2003 se buscaron en las bases de datos MEDLINE, EMBASE y Cinhal. No se impusieron restricciones adicionales de búsqueda. La última búsqueda se realizó en octubre de 2009. Se utilizaron los siguientes términos de búsqueda: Da Vinci (tw) OR Davinci (tw) OR ((robotics (MESH) OR robot* (tw)) AND surg* (tw)). La estrategia completa que se utiliza con cada base de datos se ha publicado en un informe previo (3) y se incluye en la figura 1 de esta tesis.

Para su inclusión, los estudios se debían haber llevado a cabo en humanos y se han comparado el EQDV con la cirugía laparoscópica o con la cirugía abierta en cirugía ginecológica. Se excluyeron los estudios sin grupos de control, al igual que los relacionados con los animales o cadáveres. La calidad de los estudios seleccionados se evaluó en mediante un cuestionario (27;28), que examina los aspectos de la metodología seguida, como si el trabajo fue diseñado para responder a una pregunta claramente definida, si el estudio fue aleatorio y ciego, el tipo de seguimiento en que los pacientes fueron sometidos, si hay igualdad en el manejo de los pacientes y la comparabilidad de los grupos establecidos. Un formulario de recolección de datos se utilizó para registrar toda la información pertinente, por ejemplo, el diseño, el tamaño de la muestra, hospital/es en cuestión, el tipo de intervención, las características de las tecnologías comparadas, las características del paciente y los resultados.

Se llevó a cabo metaanálisis de los resultados siempre que fue posible (es decir, cuando los resultados estaban disponibles a partir de al menos dos estudios). La significación se estableció en $p \leq 0,05$. La posible heterogeneidad clínica y estadística de los resultados obtenidos se examinó en primer lugar y el metaanálisis sólo se realiza si la primera era baja. La heterogeneidad estadística se considera alta cuando I^2 fue $\geq 50\%$ y baja cuando $< 50\%$. Si esta era alta, se realizó un análisis de sensibilidad para detectar el estudio que más contribuyó a esta heterogeneidad, y las posibles diferencias entre este estudio y los estudios restantes. En el metaanálisis, el método de efectos fijos se utilizó cuando la heterogeneidad estadística fue baja, y el método de efectos aleatorios cuando fue alta.

Para las variables dicotómicas, se ha realizado metaanálisis para la odds ratio (OR) mediante el método de Mantel-Haenszel (MH), debido a que los tamaños de las muestras en los estudios eran normalmente bastante pequeñas. En este tipo de análisis, si uno de los estudios no mostró ningún evento en ambos grupos de tratamiento, o si se informaron eventos en todos los pacientes en ambos grupos, se realizó metaanálisis de la diferencia de riesgo utilizando el mismo método.

Para las variables continuas, se realizó un metaanálisis de las diferencias entre las medias por el método de varianza inversa. Cuando los subgrupos tuvieron que combinarse para el metaanálisis de ser posible, las fórmulas de Higgins et al. (29) se utilizaron para obtener las medias y las desviaciones estándar conjuntas. Cuando sólo medianas estaban disponibles, éstos se utilizaron como estimaciones de las medias (29;30). Cuando un estudio no indicaba la desviación estándar, esta se calcula a partir del error estándar de la media, intervalo de confianza del 95%, el valor de t, o el rango intercuartílico (29). Algunos estudios sólo proporcionan los intervalos, en cuyo caso se estimó la desviación estándar como se indica por Hozo et al. (30) utilizando la formula rango total / 4 (siempre y cuando fueran 70 o menos sujetos).

Se realizaron los metaanálisis y la representación gráfica de los resultados utilizando el Review Manager (RevMan) versión 5.0, software producido por el Centro Nórdico Cochrane (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2008).

3.3. Artículo 3

Síntesis de la evidencia sobre la eficacia clínica

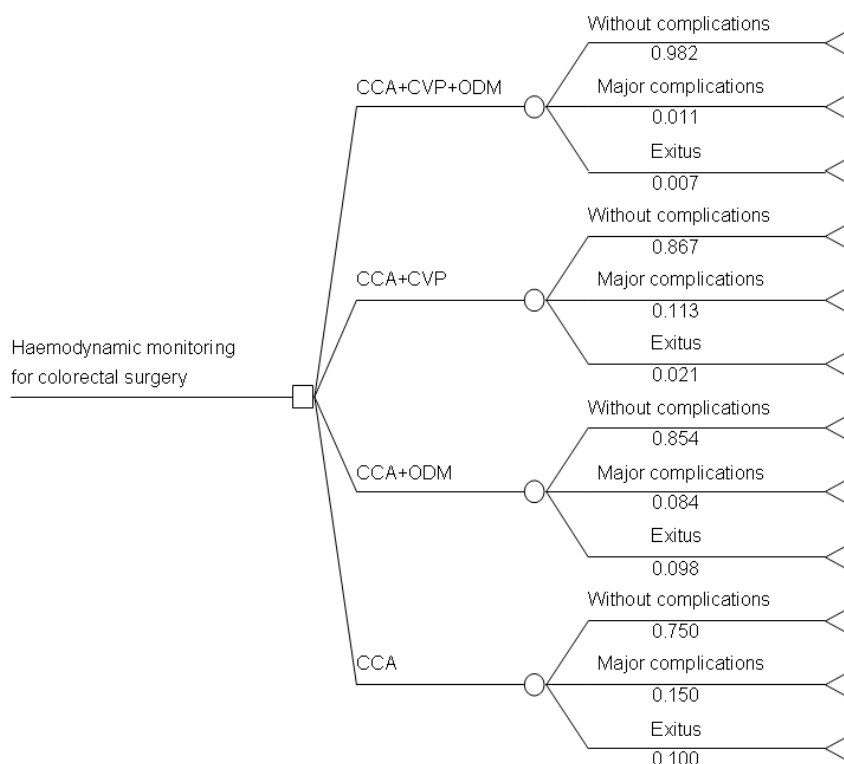
Tres de los ECAs (7;8;22) incluidos en las revisiones sistemáticas publicadas (14;31) compararon ECC+PVC+EDTE frente a ECC+PVC en resección colorrectal. Se llevaron a cabo metaanálisis de la mortalidad, complicaciones mayores y complicaciones totales. Se calcularon los riesgos relativos mediante el método de Mantel-Haenszel de efectos fijos. Como Wakeling (22) informó que no hubo complicaciones mayores, este estudio no se incluyó en el metaanálisis de esta variable (29). El método de efectos fijos se utilizó para el metaanálisis de los riesgos relativos mencionados anteriormente, ya que se suponía que no había ni heterogeneidad clínica ni estadística ($I^2 < 50\%$). El software Review Manager (RevMan) v.5.0 se utilizó para todos los cálculos. (The Cochrane Collaboration, The Nordic Cochrane Centre, Copenhagen Denmark, 2008).

Características generales del modelo económico utilizado para evaluar el coste-efectividad.

La ECC implicó la monitorización del gasto cardíaco a través de la medición de las variables clínicas tales como la frecuencia cardíaca, la presión arterial y el volumen de orina. La PVC se midió a través de un catéter venoso central. El EDTE monitorizó el gasto cardíaco mediante un sistema de ecografía esofágica y el cálculo del flujo de sangre a través de la arteria aorta descendente.

Se elaboró un modelo analítico de decisiones con cuatro estrategias (ECC+PVC+EDTE frente ECC+PVC frente ECC+EDTE frente ECC) (Figura 2) para comparar el coste-efectividad de la monitorización de la función hemodinámica. Estas estrategias fueron escogidas porque son las más utilizados en la práctica clínica y en los ECA publicados.

Figura 2. Árbol del modelo de decisión económica para la monitorización hemodinámica intraoperatoria mediante ecodoppler transesofágico



CCA: Evaluación clínica convencional; CVP: Presión venosa central, ODM: Ecodoppler transesofágico

El modelo de decisión considera los costos y los resultados hasta el alta hospitalaria, se ha supuesto que los sistemas de control del gasto cardíaco y la administración de líquidos durante la cirugía no influyen en los resultados después del alta. Este supuesto también se hizo en todos los ECA publicados. Los resultados a largo plazo se estimaron como parte de un análisis de sensibilidad.

La mortalidad evitada o las complicaciones evitadas + mortalidad evitada se utilizaron como medidas de efectividad clínica alternativas.

Datos de efectividad clínica

Las estimaciones de la eficacia de la estrategia ECC+PVC se obtuvieron de la información combinada de los estudios que aportaron datos sobre el riesgo de muerte

(3 estudios, N=144) (7;8;22) y sobre las complicaciones mayores (2 estudios, N=80) (7;8). Estos valores se utilizaron para el análisis del caso base. Los datos de probabilidad para el brazo ECC+PVC+EDTE se calcularon como el producto de las probabilidades para ECC+PVC y el riesgo relativo asociado con las alternativas correspondientes. Por último para la estrategia ECC sola los datos se obtuvieron de Dodd (16). En ausencia de datos para los RR para ECC vs ECC+EDTE, se utilizaron los datos de otras cirugías de alto riesgo (20;21) (Tabla 2a). Los datos de la probabilidad de ECC+EDTE se han estimado utilizando los mismos métodos que se describen para ECC+PVC+EDTE.

El tiempo de estancia en cuidados intensivos se basó en los datos de Conway (8) (Tabla 2b). La hospitalización total para cada grupo se obtuvo de Wakeling (22), que informó una diferencia estadísticamente significativa de la estancia hospitalaria (1,1 días menos) para los pacientes que se sometieron a EDTE. Se asumió que los pacientes sometidos a ECC+PVC tuvieron la misma duración de la estancia hospitalaria como aquellos que fueron sometidos a ECC solo.

La duración de la cirugía se calculó como la media ponderada de los datos presentados por Noblett (7) y Conway (8) (Tabla 2b).

Datos de costes

El coste de las sondas EDTE (proporcionado por los fabricantes; Tabla 2b) se considerará que incluyen el coste de la sonda desechable y el equipo de supervisión requerido. Se calcularon los costes del equipo para cada uso del mismo. Los cálculos asumen que el equipo iba a durar cinco años y que se utilizarían 125 veces al año, otras tasas de utilización fueron probadas en los análisis de sensibilidad. Los costes de capital de la EDTE se convirtieron a un costo anual equivalente (32;33) aplicando un 3% (34;35) de aumento de la inflación para ajustar por años consecutivos de uso.

Los costes de los catéteres venosos centrales fueron proporcionados por el Servicio de Anestesiología del Hospital Universitario La Paz, que confirmó el uso

equitativo de la institución de dos tipos de catéter que cuestan 12€ y 76,5€ respectivamente (muchos tipos de catéteres con precios diferentes está disponibles de hecho) (Tabla 2b).

El tiempo de utilización del quirófano se consideró como una entrada de costes. Por lo tanto, el tiempo del personal asociado a la inserción de la sonda y de tomar las lecturas del EDTE se incluyó en el tiempo de la cirugía total.

Datos sobre el uso de recursos (tiempo quirúrgico, estancia hospitalaria y estancia en UCI) se obtuvieron de fuentes publicadas (7;8;16;22). Los costos unitarios de uso de quirófano, hospitalización y estancia en UCI se obtuvieron del sistema de contabilidad de Salud Madrid (Consejería de Salud de la Comunidad de Madrid, 2007) (Tabla 2b).

Los costos se ajustaron a los precios de 2007, en su caso, utilizando el índice de precios al consumidor español. Los costos asociados con los pacientes que murieron fueron consideradas equivalentes a las de los pacientes con complicaciones dado que los ECAs examinados registraron estancias en UCI para los pacientes que finalmente murieron (7;8).

Tabla 2a. Datos usados en el caso base y en los análisis de sensibilidad

| | Caso base | | Análisis de sensibilidad determinístico | | Análisis de sensibilidad probabilístico | | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------|---|------|---|-------|-------|--------|-------|
| | Fuente | Valor | Min. | Max. | Distrib. | Media | Min. | Max. | DE |
| Riesgos relativos * | | | | | | | | | |
| ECC+PVC vs. ECC+PVC+EDTE (1) | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | Conway, Noblett, Wakeling | 0,33 | 0,05 | 2,07 | Lognormal | 0,526 | 0,014 | 11,757 | 0,627 |
| Complicaciones mayores | Conway, Noblett | 0,10 | 0,01 | 0,76 | Lognormal | 0,186 | 0,002 | 4,973 | 0,283 |
| ECC vs. ECC+EDTE (2) | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | Venn, Sinclair | 0,98 | 0,26 | 3,72 | Lognormal | 1,248 | 0,073 | 12,929 | 0,944 |
| Complicaciones mayores | Venn | 0,48 | 0,12 | 0,88 | Lognormal | 0,517 | 0,113 | 2,228 | 0,204 |
| Probabilidades | | | | | | | | | |
| ECC+PVC (3) | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | Conway, Noblett, Wakeling | 0,021 | - | - | Beta | 0,021 | 0,001 | 0,096 | 0,012 |
| Complicaciones mayores | Conway, Noblett | 0,113 | - | - | Beta | 0,112 | 0,008 | 0,242 | 0,031 |
| ECC+PVC+EDTE | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | (1)*(3) | 0,007 | - | - | - | 0,010 | 0,000 | 0,308 | 0,015 |
| Complicaciones mayores | (1)*(3) | 0,011 | - | - | - | 0,020 | 0,000 | 0,407 | 0,028 |
| ECC (4) | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | Dodd | 0,100 | 0,05 | - | Beta | 0,098 | 0,001 | 0,356 | 0,058 |
| Complicaciones mayores | Dodd | 0,150 | 0,10 | - | Beta | 0,146 | 0,004 | 0,512 | 0,067 |
| ECC+EDTE | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortalidad | (2)*(4) | 0,098 | - | - | - | 0,089 | 0,000 | 0,661 | 0,081 |
| Complicaciones mayores | (2)*(4) | 0,048 | - | - | - | 0,059 | 0,001 | 0,377 | 0,040 |

Tabla 2b. Datos usados en el caso base y en los análisis de sensibilidad

| | Caso base | | | Análisis de sensibilidad determinístico | | Análisis de sensibilidad probabilístico | | | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|--------|----------|---|--------|---|----------|--------|----------|--------|
| | Fuente | Valor | Unidades | Min. | Max. | Distrib. | Media | Min. | Max. | DE |
| Tiempo quirúrgico | | | | | | | | | | |
| ECC+PVC+EDTE | Noblett, Conway | 142.8 | Min | - | 158,3 | Gamma | 145 | 26 | 382 | 45 |
| ECC+PVC | Noblett, Conway | 158.3 | Min | - | - | Gamma | 156 | 20 | 492 | 57 |
| ECC+EDTE | Noblett, Conway | 142.8 | Min | - | 158,3 | Gamma | 145 | 26 | 382 | 45 |
| ECC | Noblett, Conway | 158.3 | Min | - | - | Gamma | 156 | 20 | 492 | 57 |
| Estancia hospitalaria | | | | | | | | | | |
| ECC+PVC+EDTE | Wakeling | 12.0 | Días | - | 13,1 | Gamma | 12,03 | 0,58 | 52,31 | 6,05 |
| ECC+PVC | Wakeling | 13.1 | Días | - | - | Gamma | 13,04 | 0,79 | 52,82 | 6,57 |
| ECC+EDTE | Wakeling | 12.0 | Días | - | 13,1 | Gamma | 12,03 | 0,58 | 52,31 | 6,05 |
| ECC | Wakeling | 13.1 | Días | - | - | Gamma | 13,04 | 0,79 | 52,82 | 6,57 |
| Estancia en UCI | | | | | | | | | | |
| ECC+PVC+EDTE | Conway | 3.0 | Días | - | - | Gamma | 2,99 | 0,14 | 11,77 | 1,49 |
| ECC+PVC | Conway | 3.0 | Días | - | - | Gamma | 3,08 | 0,12 | 12,60 | 1,52 |
| ECC+EDTE | Conway | 3.0 | Días | - | - | Gamma | 2,99 | 0,14 | 11,77 | 1,49 |
| ECC | Dodd | 2.0 | Días | - | 3,0 | Gamma | 2,00 | 0,06 | 7,90 | 1,01 |
| Costes | | | | | | | | | | |
| Quirófano | Departamento de finanzas | 16.47 | E/min | 5,75 | - | Gamma | 16,50 | 0,68 | 59,60 | 8,24 |
| Estancia hospitalaria | Departamento de finanzas | 493 | E/día | 296 | - | Gamma | 491,42 | 22,49 | 1.901,14 | 244,36 |
| Estancia en UCI | Departamento de finanzas | 1,417 | E/ día | 855 | - | Gamma | 1.405,20 | 101,55 | 5.191,02 | 701,73 |
| EDTE | Proveedor | 201.25 | E | 188,88 | 299,91 | Gamma | 200,48 | 12,55 | 805,20 | 101,08 |
| PVC | HULP | 44.25 | E | 12 | 76,50 | Gamma | 44,61 | 1,36 | 198,28 | 22,57 |

min: Minutos; DE: Desviación estandar; EDTE: Ecodoppler transesofágico; PVC: Presión venosa central; ECC: Evaluación clínica convencional; UCI: Unidad de cuidados intensivos; E: Euros. *El análisis de sensibilidad determinístico incluye el intervalo de confianza al 95% para los riesgos relativos

Análisis de coste-efectividad

Los costos utilizados en el presente análisis se presentan en euros del 2.007. La mortalidad evitada y las complicaciones evitadas + mortalidad evitada se utilizaron como medidas de efectividad alternativas. El descuento de los costos y beneficios futuros no era necesario ya que el horizonte temporal del análisis fue de menos de un año (de hecho, sólo hasta el alta hospitalaria) (32).

Aquellas estrategias de menor eficacia y mayor costo fueron considerados como dominadas, las relaciones de costo-efectividad incremental (ICER) no se calcularon en estos casos.

Análisis de sensibilidad

Se realizó un análisis de sensibilidad determinista univariante para comprender el impacto individual de los valores de incertidumbre de algunas variables y un análisis probabilístico fue realizado para estudiar el efecto conjunto de todas las variables expresadas como distribuciones de probabilidad.

Las variables de costes se modificaron utilizando los valores publicados (36;37) (Tabla 2b). Las distribuciones fueron seleccionados según Briggs (38;39), dependiendo del tipo de variable (por ejemplo, distribución beta para probabilidades, logarítmica normal para el RR, y gamma para las variables de tiempo y de costes). El análisis probabilístico implicó una simulación de Monte-Carlo con 10.000 iteraciones. Los resultados de este análisis se presentan como curvas de aceptabilidad coste-eficacia (CEACs). Central para la evaluación de la relación coste-eficacia es el valor que la sociedad adjudique a obtener una unidad adicional de eficacia. Por lo tanto, al conocer 'disposición a pagar' un valor particular en el eje horizontal, la probabilidad de que sea rentable puede ser obtenido a partir del eje vertical.

Se determinó el beneficio monetario neto de cada alternativa a la evaluación convencional (39). Como parte del análisis de sensibilidad, los gastos generados por los

pacientes y la calidad del resto de sus vidas después de la cirugía colorrectal fueron estimados. Se supuso que los pacientes dados de alta vivos generarían los mismos costes y tienen el mismo AVAC ganado, tal como se describe por Vertouil et al. (40). Los costos de este último estudio, fueron convertidos a euros utilizando los valores de paridad de poder de compra para España (<http://www.who.int/choice/costs/ppp/en/> última consulta el 26 de octubre de 2010).

4. ARTÍCULO 1: Efficacy of the da Vinci Surgical System in abdominal surgery compared with that of laparoscopy. A systematic review and meta-analysis

Eficacia del equipo quirúrgico da Vinci comparado con la cirugía laparoscópica en cirugía abdominal. Una revisión sistemática y metaanálisis.

(Annals of Surgery 2010: 254-262)

Antecedentes: "La cirugía robótica" es una tecnología emergente que permite llevar a cabo cirugía laparoscópica. El cirujano dirige los brazos robóticos a través de una consola por medio de manijas y los pedales con un sistema de visión estereoscópica. Se está utilizando en la urología, cirugía general, ginecología y cirugía cardiotorácica. Presentamos aquí los resultados de la cirugía abdominal.

Objetivo: El objetivo principal de la revisión es evaluar la efectividad y seguridad del Equipo Quirúrgico Da Vinci frente a la cirugía laparoscópica convencional en intervenciones de cirugía abdominal.

Métodos: Este estudio es una revisión sistemática en la que se analiza la mejor evidencia científica publicada sobre la efectividad y seguridad del EQDV en cirugía abdominal. Para el análisis de los resultados se realizaron metaanálisis para las distintas variables de resultado indicadas.

Resultados: Hemos incluido 32 comparaciones que incluían 2,166 pacientes. Incluimos cirugías como la funduplicatura (9 estudios), miotomía (3), bypass gástrico (4), gastrectomía (2), cirugía bariátrica (1), colecistectomía (4), esplenectomía (1), resección colorrectal (7) y rectopexia (1). La miotomía presenta un riesgo de perforación inferior, la gastrectomía muestra una estancia y recuperación intestinal más cortas con mayor tiempo quirúrgico, la colecistectomía presenta menor estancia pero mayor tiempo quirúrgico, la resección colorrectal presenta un mayor tiempo quirúrgico y el bypass gástrico muestra mayor número de conversiones.

Conclusiones: Las publicaciones revisadas sólo muestran ciertas ventajas del dispositivo para la miotomía, gastrectomía y colecistectomía. Estos resultados se deben interpretar con cautela a la espera de ensayos clínicos aleatorios y, en indicaciones oncológicas, estudios que incluyan variables clínicas finales como la supervivencia.

Efficacy of the Da Vinci Surgical System in Abdominal Surgery Compared With That of Laparoscopy

A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis

Sergio Maeso, MD, MPH,* Mercedes Reza, PharmD,* Julio A. Mayol, MD,† Juan A. Blasco, MD, MPH,* Mercedes Guerra, Lic,* Elena Andradás, MD, MPH,* and María N. Plana, MD, MPH‡

Aim: The main aim of this review was to compare the safety and efficacy of the Da Vinci Surgical System (DVSS) and conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS) in different types of abdominal intervention.

Summary of Background Data: DVSS is an emerging laparoscopic technology. The surgeon directs the robotic arms of the system through a console by means of hand controls and pedals, making use of a stereoscopic viewing system. DVSS is currently being used in general, urological, gynecologic, and cardiothoracic surgery.

Methods: This systematic review analyses the best scientific evidence available regarding the safety and efficacy of DVSS in abdominal surgery. The results found were subjected to meta-analysis whenever possible.

Results: Thirty-one studies, 6 of them randomized control trials, involving 2166 patients that compared DVSS and CLS were examined. The procedures undertaken were fundoplication (9 studies, one also examining cholecystectomy), Heller myotomy (3 studies), gastric bypass (4), gastrectomy (2), bariatric surgery (1), cholecystectomy (4), splenectomy (1), colorectal resection (7), and rectopexy (1). DVSS was found to be associated with fewer Heller myotomy-related perforations, a more rapid intestinal recovery time after gastrectomy—and therefore a shorter hospital stay, a shorter hospital stay following cholecystectomy (although the duration of surgery was longer), longer colorectal resection surgery times, and a larger number of conversions to open surgery during gastric bypass.

Conclusions: The publications reviewed revealed DVSS to offer certain advantages with respect to Heller myotomy, gastrectomy, and cholecystectomy. However, these results should be interpreted with caution until randomized clinical trials are performed and, with respect to oncologic indications, studies include variables such as survival.

(Ann Surg 2010;252: 254–262)

Laparoscopic surgery, which was introduced in 1988, has enjoyed wide acceptance in the field of general surgery, and numerous procedures for this minimally invasive approach have been developed. Many patients have benefited from its use.

Robotic surgery is an emerging technology that allows laparoscopic procedures to be followed in many surgical situations. It

was first used in 2000 after gaining the approval of the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA). A number of robotic surgery devices have been developed, such as the Automated Endoscopic System for Optimal Positioning (Computer Motion, Santa Barbara, CA), the Zeus Surgical System (Computer Motion), and the Da Vinci Surgical System (DVSS; Intuitive Surgical Inc, Mountain View, Sunnyvale, CA). The Automated Endoscopic System for Optimal Positioning was the first robotic device approved by the FDA. The Zeus Surgical System device involves a 2-dimensional viewing system and the remote control of the robotic arms is on the operating table. However, this system is no longer commercially distributed. DVSS is the newest and most widely used device.

The DVSS device has a computer-assisted robotic arms that allow surgeons to operate in certain areas of the body using very small incisions. By the use of a console and with the aid of a stereoscopic viewer, the surgeon controls the robotic arms with hand controls and pedals. The movements of the surgeon's hands are digitalized and transmitted to the robotic arms, which make identical movements in the surgical field. These arms have joints allowing free movement comparable to that enjoyed by human arms/hands. They are also fitted with an antitremble filter. The surgeon sees a 3-dimensional image of the surgical field on a monitor, provided by the binocular viewer on the console. The images displayed show the intraoperative area and the surgical instruments at the ends of the robotic arms. The movements of the robotic arms cease if the surgeon looks away from the screen. It should be remembered that the robotic arms follow the movements of the surgeon; the experience, skill, and judgment of the surgeon, therefore, influence the surgical results obtained.

The control console and the robotic arms are connected by means of a data cable. In the United States, the FDA only allows the use of this device when the surgeon is in the same room as the patient. Telesurgery, in which the surgeon is not in the same room, is possible, although this is limited by data transfer speeds.

The potential advantages of DVSS over conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS) include its greater precision, lower error rates, reduced bleeding, shorter hospital stays, more rapid patient recovery, and reduced pain. It also has ergonomic advantages for the surgeon, eg, the surgeon remains seated during the operation. Three- and 4-arm versions are available. A DVSS robotic device costs about \$1 million. The surgical instruments designed for use with the robotic arms can be used a maximum of 10 times.

Although robotic surgery is in its early stages, many surgeons have begun to use it in daily practice. DVSS is now used in general, urological, gynecologic, and cardiothoracic surgery. It is being used for radical prostatectomy, pyeloplasty, nephrectomy, cystectomy, esophageal surgery, bariatric surgery, cholecystectomy, colorectal resection, hysterectomy, cardiac septum, and valve surgery. The present work focuses on its use in general surgery, such as fundoplication, gastric bypass, cholecystectomy, and colorectal resection.

From the *Health Technology Assessment Unit, Agencia Lain Entralgo, Madrid, Spain; †General and Digestive Surgery Department, Hospital Clínico San Carlos, Madrid, Spain; and ‡Clinical Biostatistic Unit, Hospital Ramón y Cajal, Epidemiology and Public Health CIBER, Madrid, Spain.

This paper is based on a health technology assessment report financed by the Spanish Ministry of Health.

Systematic review of the literature regarding the safety and efficacy of the Da Vinci Surgical System in abdominal surgery. Meta-analysis of the results was performed whenever possible.

Reprints: Sergio Maeso, MD, MPH, Health Technology Assessment Unit, Agencia Lain Entralgo, Gran Vía 27, 7ª planta, 28013 Madrid, Spain. E-mail: smaemar@hotmail.com.

Copyright © 2010 by Lippincott Williams & Wilkins

ISSN: 0003-4932/10/25202-0254

DOI: 10.1097/SLA.0b013e3181e6239e

A recent Belgian assessment of this technology¹ indicates that around 1000 DVSS devices have been installed, and provides information on the number of these systems per head of population in different countries. The United States and Belgium have the highest ratios in this respect, with 1.5 devices per million inhabitants. Around 0.5 devices per million inhabitants are available in most other countries where this technology has been acquired.

The main aim of this review was to compare the safety and efficacy of DVSS and CLS in abdominal interventions with respect to adult patients.

METHODS

This study involved a systematic review of the literature that analyses the best scientific evidence available regarding the safety and efficacy of DVSS in abdominal surgery. The literature was exhaustively examined for systematic reviews and assessment reports through searches of the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination database of the University of York, the DARE and HTA database, the Cochrane Systematic Reviews database (via the Cochrane Library Plus database), and the Hayes (an independent health technology research and consulting company) database. A systematic review of good quality² published in 2004³ was found, and the complete text of the articles cited was obtained. Further searches for primary studies undertaken since 2003 were then performed using the Medline, Embase, and Cinahl databases. The following search terms were employed: Da Vinci (tw) OR Davinci (tw) OR robotics (MESH) OR robot* (tw) PLUS surg* (tw). Searches were updated until 17 August 2009. A manual inspection was also made of the references cited in the articles found. The review only included studies involving humans in which DVSS was compared with CLS in the general surgery setting. Studies involving pediatric patients, animals, cadavers, or which had no control group were excluded.

The methodological quality of the studies included was assessed using a checklist based on the questionnaire of Guyatt et al.^{4,5} The items used were as follows: (1) Is the trial designed to answer a clearly defined question? only (objective); (2) Were the patients randomly assigned to treatment groups? (randomization); (3) Was the number of patients enrolled at the start of the study recorded, and was the time when the study ended clearly indicated? (follow-up); (4) Were the patients and researchers blinded with respect to the treatment administered? (blinding); (5) Were the groups similar at the start of the study? (baseline characteristics); (6) Aside from the experimental intervention, were the groups treated in the same way? (intervention). A data collection form was used to record all relevant information, eg, design, sample size, hospital(s) involved, type of intervention, characteristics of the technologies being compared, patient characteristics, and the results.

Meta-analysis of the results was performed whenever possible. Significance was set at $P \leq 0.05$; the same value was also used to define significant differences in comparisons made in the different studies. When necessary, several groups within a study were combined for use as a single comparison group in meta-analysis.⁶ The clinical and statistical heterogeneity of the studies was examined, and meta-analysis performed only when the clinical heterogeneity between studies was low. Statistical heterogeneity was considered high when $I^2 \geq 50\%$ and low when $<50\%$. In meta-analysis, the fixed effects method was used when the statistical heterogeneity was low, and the random effects method when high.

For dichotomous variables, meta-analysis of odds ratios (OR) was performed using the Mantel-Haenszel method; this was so because the sample sizes reported in the studies were normally fairly small. In such analyses, if one of the studies reported no events in either the DVSS or CLS group, or if events were reported in all

patients of both groups, meta-analysis of risk difference was performed using the same method.

For continuous variables, meta-analysis of the differences between means was performed following the inverse variance method. When variables had been recorded on different scales, standardized mean differences were used. When subgroups had to be combined for meta-analysis to be possible, the formulae of Higgins and Green⁶ were used to obtain the means and joint standard deviations. When only medians were available, these were used as estimates of means.^{6,7} When a study failed to indicate the standard deviation, this variable was calculated from the standard error of the mean, 95% confidence interval, the t value, or the interquartile range.⁶ Some studies only recorded the length of postoperative hospital stay; when this was the case these figures were used as an approximation of the total length of stay.

Meta-analyses and the graphical representation of the results were undertaken using Review Manager (RevMan) software V. 5.0 produced by The Nordic Cochrane Centre (The Cochrane Collaboration, 2008).

RESULTS

A total of 2869 potential articles were detected. After the elimination of duplicates, 1931 articles remained. Of these, 164 articles were selected from their titles and abstracts and a full examination of their texts made. Thirty-one articles were deemed to meet the inclusion criteria, including 32 comparisons (Fig. 1): 9 comparing DVSS and CLS for fundoplication, 3 for Heller myotomy, 4 for gastric bypass, 2 for gastrectomy, 1 for bariatric surgery, 4 for cholecystectomy, 1 for splenectomy, 7 for colorectal resection, and 1 for rectopexy (Table 1).

The only known trial underway at the time of the study was that of Muller-Stich et al.,⁸ who were following up their cohort to obtain results at 1 year.

The included studies were all published between 2002 and 2009. Six (19%) were randomized clinical trials (RCTs); the remaining 25 (81%) were observational (cohort monitoring) studies. The sample sizes varied from 10 to 367; together, the selected studies included 2166 patients.

With respect to methodological quality, all of the studies included set out a clearly defined question to be answered, 19% involved randomization of the patients, 90% showed adequate patient follow-up, and 13% involved some form of blinding. The baseline characteristics of the established groups were not adequately compared in 35% of the selected studies, and in 13% some characteristics were found to be significantly different. In all studies; however, the members of the different groups were treated equally except for the intervention they underwent (Fig. 2).

The following lines compare the results obtained.

Gastroesophageal Surgery

Fundoplication

Four RCTs^{8–11} and 5 nonrandomized studies^{12–16} were found that compared fundoplication performed by DVSS and CLS in the treatment of gastroesophageal reflux. Seven of these reports involved Nissen fundoplication and 2^{12,14} involved Dor fundoplication. The study of Beninca (2003) was excluded because it involved the same patients as in the intervention group described by Morino et al.¹⁰ With respect to methodological quality, of the 4 RCTs examined only one¹⁰ described the randomization system employed, and only one⁸ involved some form of blinding (the patients did not know which procedure they had undergone). Apart from the failure to randomize, the non-RCTs involved no blinding. Furthermore, the baseline characteristics of the established groups were not compared

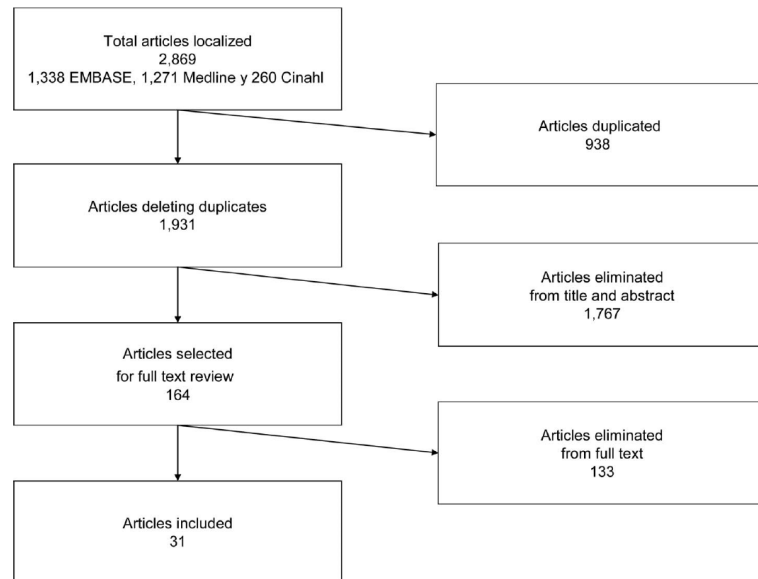


FIGURE 1. Flow chart of included studies.

in one of these studies,¹⁵ and in 2^{14,16} no statistical results were provided for these comparisons.

Of these total 9 studies,^{79–14,16} found DVSS to be associated with longer surgery times, ranging from 25 to 91 minutes. Only 2 studies^{8,15} reported DVSS to be associated with shorter surgery times—of 10 and 14 minutes. The pooled median difference (MD) was 20.67 and 95% CI was –9.69, 51.02 (no significant differences [NSD]) (Table 2).

Three studies^{8,10,14} compared the incision-closure time. Two^{10,14} reported differences of 14 and 7 minutes in favor of DVSS; the remaining study⁸ reported this period to be 17 minutes shorter when using DVSS. The pooled MD was –8.40 and 95% CI was –35.91, 19.10 (NSD).

Hospital stay varied between 2 and 7 days for both techniques.^{8–16} The pooled MD was –0.08 and 95% CI was –0.41, 0.25 (NSD).

With respect to complications, all 9 reports found differences between DVSS and CLS that varied between –26% and 45%. Taking into account all 9 studies, 21% of the DVSS patients (37/179) suffered some complication compared with 22% (48/219) of the CLS patients. The pooled RD was –2% and 95% CI being –12%, 8% (NSD).

Again taking all 9 studies into account, 1% (2/179) of the DVSS patients had to be switched to open surgery (OS) during the procedure compared with 2% (4/219) of the CLS patients. The pooled RD was –1% and 95% CI was –5%, 3% (NSD). Of the DVSS patients, 2% (4/179) had to be switched to OS or CLS. The pooled RD was 0% and 95% CI was –4%, 4% (NSD).

Of the 9 studies, 3 of which were RCTs,^{8,10,11} 4 studies^{8,10,11,13} reported DVSS to be more costly than CLS, ranging from \$695 to \$2502. The pooled MD was 1596 and 95% CI was –181, 3374 (NSD).

When randomized and nonrandomized studies were included in the meta-analyses, a sensitivity analyses were performed including only randomized studies, the results of those analyses were consistent with the pooled main analyses.

One study⁹ reported a nonsignificant improvement (25 mL) in blood loss in favor of DVSS.

Postoperative reflux was compared in 4 studies^{8,9,12,14} and dysphagia in 2^{8,13}; NSD between DVSS and CLS were seen in either case. Quality of life was compared in 3 studies,^{9,10,12} with NSD reported.

Two studies^{9,10} measured intra-abdominal pressure and blood pH during follow-up, finding NSD between DVSS and CLS patients. The study of Melvin et al¹⁶ reported DVSS to be associated with better midterm follow-up results, with no patients who underwent such surgery requiring daily antisecretory medication compared with 30% of CLS patients ($P < 0.05$). However, Muller-Stich et al⁸ and Hartmann et al¹² reported a similar need for proton pump inhibitors in both groups.

Neither Draaisma et al⁹ nor Muller-Stich et al⁸ assessed the learning curve as all interventions were undertaken by already experienced surgeons. Melvin et al¹⁶ indicated that, after eliminating the first 10 cases of the use of DVSS, surgery time remained longer than that of CLS (131 minutes compared with 97 minutes; $P = 0.006$). In fact, NSD were seen between the DVSS surgery times for the first and last 10 patients operated on (151 minutes compared with 131 minutes). Morino et al¹⁰ indicated that the total surgery time and incision-closure time did not vary between the first and last 10 DVSS patients. Only Giulianotti et al¹⁵ appreciated a slight improvement, with a significant difference in surgery time between the first 21 and last 20 DVSS patients (133 minutes compared with 92 minutes). Hartmann et al¹² did not specify the experience of DVSS of the surgeons involved in their study.

In conclusion, no differences were detected between DVSS and CLS with respect to surgery time, length of hospital stay, complications, or conversion to another surgical technique.

Heller Myotomy

Three studies^{17–19} were found that compared Heller myotomy assisted by DVSS and that performed by CLS for the treatment of

TABLE 1. Studies Included for Each Surgical Indication

| Indication | Patients | | | Design |
|----------------------------------|----------|------|------|------------|
| | Total | DVSS | CLS | |
| Fundoplication | | | | |
| Muller-Stich et al ⁸ | 40 | 20 | 20 | RCT |
| Draaisma et al ⁹ | 50 | 25 | 25 | RCT |
| Morino et al ¹⁰ | 50 | 25 | 25 | RCT |
| Nakadi et al ¹¹ | 20 | 9 | 11 | RCT |
| Hartmannet al ¹² | 80 | 18 | 62 | Controlled |
| Heemskerk et al ¹³ | 22 | 11 | 11 | Controlled |
| Ayav et al ¹⁴ | 20 | 10 | 10 | Controlled |
| Giulianotti et al ^{*15} | 76 | 41 | 35 | Controlled |
| Melvin et al ¹⁶ | 40 | 20 | 20 | Controlled |
| Total: 9 | 398 | 179 | 219 | |
| Heller myotomy | | | | |
| Huffman et al ¹⁷ | 61 | 24 | 37 | Controlled |
| Iqbal et al ¹⁸ | 70 | 19 | 51 | Controlled |
| Horgan et al ¹⁹ | 121 | 59 | 62 | Controlled |
| Total: 3 | 252 | 102 | 150 | |
| Roux-en-Y gastric bypass | | | | |
| Sanchez et al ²⁰ | 50 | 25 | 25 | RCT |
| Hubens et al ²¹ | 90 | 45 | 45 | Controlled |
| Artuso et al ²² | 161 | 41 | 120 | Controlled |
| Mohr et al ²³ | 20 | 10 | 10 | Controlled |
| Total: 4 | 321 | 121 | 200 | |
| Gastrectomy | | | | |
| Song et al ²⁴ | 60 | 20 | 40 | Controlled |
| Kim et al ²⁵ | 27 | 16 | 11 | Controlled |
| Total: 2 | 87 | 36 | 51 | |
| Adjustable gastric band | | | | |
| Muhlmann et al ²⁶ | 20 | 10 | 10 | Controlled |
| Cholecystectomy | | | | |
| Ruurda et al ²⁷ | 20 | 10 | 10 | RCT |
| Breitenstein et al ²⁸ | 100 | 50 | 50 | Controlled |
| Heemskerk et al ²⁹ | 24 | 12 | 12 | Controlled |
| Giulianotti et al ^{*15} | 367 | 52 | 315 | Controlled |
| Total: 4 | 511 | 124 | 387 | |
| Splenectomy | | | | |
| Bodner et al ³⁰ | 12 | 6 | 6 | Controlled |
| Colorectal resection | | | | |
| Baik et al ³¹ | 107 | 56 | 51 | Controlled |
| Spinoglio et al ³² | 211 | 50 | 161 | Controlled |
| Rawlings et al ³³ | 57 | 30 | 27 | Controlled |
| Pigazzi et al ³⁴ | 12 | 6 | 6 | Controlled |
| Woeste et al ³⁵ | 27 | 4 | 23 | Controlled |
| D'Annibale et al ³⁶ | 106 | 53 | 53 | Controlled |
| Delaney et al ³⁷ | 12 | 6 | 6 | Controlled |
| Total: 7 | 532 | 205 | 327 | |
| Rectopexy | | | | |
| Heemskerk et al ³⁸ | 33 | 14 | 19 | Controlled |
| Total: 32 comparisons* | 2166 | 797 | 1369 | |

*Giulianotti et al¹⁵ includes 2 surgical indications.
 DVSS indicates da Vinci surgical system; CLS, conventional laparoscopic surgery;
 RCT, randomized controlled trial.

esophageal achalasia. With respect to their quality, those of Iqbal et al¹⁸ and Huffman et al¹⁷ were neither randomized nor blinded, nor were the baseline characteristics of the established groups compared, and that of Horgan et al¹⁹ reported baseline differences between these groups with respect to weight loss and the pressure exerted by the inferior esophageal sphincter.

Taking these studies together, no esophageal perforations were reported in any DVSS patient in any of these studies (0/102) compared with 11% (17/150) of the CLS patients suffered esophageal perforations. The pooled OR was 0.11 and 95% CI was 0.02, 0.56. The meta-analysis of these studies confirms significant differences in terms of this variable, with 8 times fewer DVSS patients suffering this problem (RR, 0.12).

Two studies^{17,19} found DVSS to take longer than CLS (19 and 68 minutes extra respectively). However, meta-analysis of these studies revealed no differences in surgery time between DVSS and CLS. The pooled MD was 38.01 and 95% CI was -8.79, 84.81 (NSD).

The length of hospital stay associated with both types of surgery was 2 to 3 days, with a differences of 0,¹⁸ 0.2,¹⁷ and 0.7¹⁹ days in favor of CLS reported (although significance was not indicated).

No significant differences were seen with respect to blood loss, with differences ranging from 10 mL more to 10 mL less for DVSS.

Horgan et al¹⁹ reported a significant postoperative difference in the pressure exerted by the inferior esophageal sphincter (3 mm Hg in favor of DVSS).

Huffman et al¹⁷ reported the postoperative quality of life of DVSS patients to be more improved than that of CLS patients with respect to role played and general perception of health (2 of 9 categories).

Horgan et al¹⁹ detected a steeper learning curve for DVSS with a similar surgery time being reached only in the last 30 DVSS patients (108 minutes compared with 104 minutes for CLS; NS).

In conclusion, with respect to Heller myotomy, DVSS appears to be associated with a much lower risk of perforation and a better quality of life.

Gastric Bypass

Four studies²⁰⁻²³ were found comparing Roux-en-Y gastric bypass assisted by DVSS and CLS for the treatment of morbid obesity. Those of Mohr et al²³ and Sanchez et al²⁰ were performed at the same institution, but they involved different patients; both, therefore, were taken into account. Sanchez et al²⁰ report an RCT of good quality, despite their not explaining the randomization process and the lack of any blinding. None of the remaining 3 studies were randomized or blinded in any way, and those of Artuso et al²² and Hubens et al²¹ did not compare the baseline characteristics of the established groups. In the report by Mohr et al,²³ no attempt was made to analyze the results on an intention-to-treat basis.

Approximately 14% (11/80) of the patients who underwent DVSS had to be switched to another technique during surgery compared with none (0/80) of those who received CLS. The pooled OR was 7.07 and the 95% CI was 1.16, 43.04. Meta-analysis of these studies revealed significant differences in the number of patients who required such conversion to be significant (8 times more common among DVSS patients; RR, 8.33). Some 8% (6/80) of the DVSS patients were switched to OS compared with none of the CLS group. The pooled OR was 0.06 and 95% CI was -0.04, 0.16 (NSD).

The duration of surgery was significantly shorter with DVSS in 2 studies,^{20,23} and longer in 2 other studies.^{21,22} The pooled MD was 10.12 and 95% CI was -69.86, 90.11 (NSD).

No significant differences were reported with respect to complications.^{20,21,23} Of the DVSS, 10% (8/80) patients suffered a

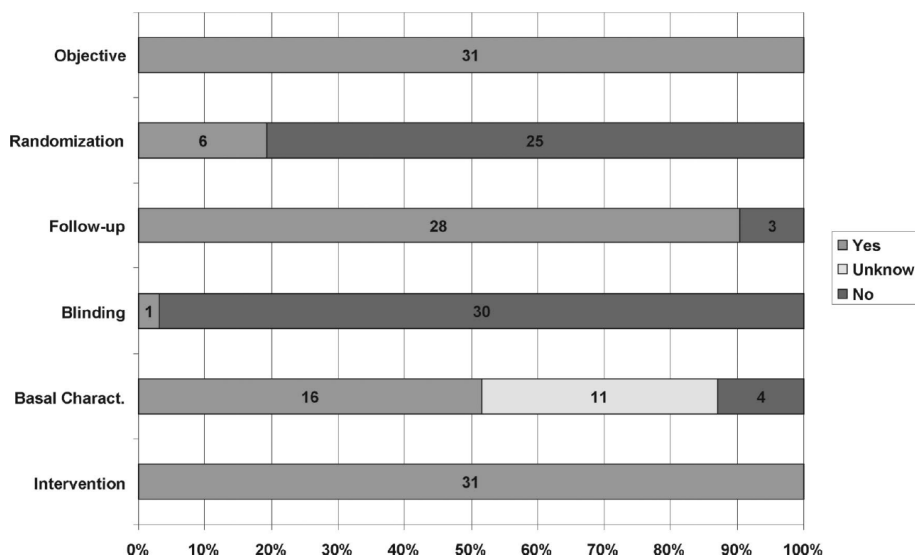


FIGURE 2. Number and percentage of included studies for each quality item.

complication compared with 15% (12/80) of the CLS group. The pooled OR was 0.58 and 95% CI was 0.21, 1.66 (NSD).

No significant differences were reported with respect to the length of hospital stay. The study that reported on costs of surgery²¹ indicated DVSS to be €1000 more expensive.

Perhaps unexpectedly, Mohr et al²³ reported the DVSS gastric bypass learning curve to be less steep than that of CLS. Sanchez et al²⁰ reported a CLS surgery time of 163, 141, and 139 minutes for continuous groups of 10 patients and 154, 124, and 99 minutes for DVSS. The time, therefore, stabilized from the 11th case in CLS but continued to descend in DVSS. Artuso et al²² reported a learning curve for the time of installation and robotic work in DVSS. Hubens et al²¹ indicated the time required to complete DVSS to be similar to that required for CLS (136 minutes compared with 127 minutes) for the last 10 DVSS patients; the learning curve was found to involve about 35 cases but the time to install the robot was stable at 30 minutes.

In conclusion, the present work suggest that with respect to Roux-en-Y gastric bypass, DVSS and CLS are associated with similar surgery times, length of hospital stay, and number of complications, whereas DVSS is associated with a larger number of surgical conversions.

Gastrectomy

Two articles^{24,25} were detected that compared gastrectomy performed by DVSS and CLS. A study of Song et al²⁴ included 2 control groups of patients, one whose members received CLS during its early days (2003), and the other whose members underwent gastrectomy through CLS more recently. In the present work these groups were combined. Neither of the studies found were randomized nor was any blinding involved. In addition, a number of differences between the baseline characteristics of the patients were detected: in BMI in the study of Kim et al²⁵ and in age and year of intervention in that of Song et al.²⁴

The length of hospital stay was a significant 1.3²⁴ or 1.4²⁵ days shorter when DVSS was performed. The pooled MD was -1.38 and

95% CI being -1.84, -0.93. Meta-analysis of these studies confirmed this, returning a stay 1.4 days shorter when DVSS was used.

The time elapsed until intestinal recovery (measured until the first passing of gas) was recorded as 0.2²⁴ and 0.4²⁵ days shorter for DVSS. The pooled MD was -0.21 and 95% CI was -0.42, -0.01. Joint analysis confirmed a significantly shorter time, 0.2 days, for DVSS.

Surgery time was recorded as 55 minutes²⁵ and 18 minutes²⁴ longer with DVSS. The pooled MD was 37.60 and 95% CI was 1.28, 73.92. Meta-analysis confirmed DVSS to take a significant 38 minutes longer.

Meta-analysis revealed no significant difference between the surgical techniques in terms of the number of patients suffering some complication (OR: 0.44 and 95% CI: 0.07, 2.94), in the number of ganglia resected (MD: 0.58 and 95% CI: -4.66, 5.81), or in the amount of blood lost (MD: 15.88 and 95% CI: -51.84, 83.59).

Adjustable Gastric Band

Muhlmann et al²⁶ compared bariatric surgery for morbid obesity when performed by DVSS and CLS. The study includes setting or reviewing adjustable gastric band (12 patients) as well as implanable gastric stimulator (4 patients). This study was of good quality, although it was not randomized and involved no blinding.

The study reported surgery time to be a significant 40 minutes longer when DVSS was used. The cost of DVSS was more than \$3200 greater than that of CLS ($P < 0.05$). No significant differences were seen with respect to the length of hospital stay or the number of complications.

In conclusion, bariatric surgery performed by DVSS would appear to be more expensive and to take longer (for no apparent benefit) than when performed by CLS.

Liver, Gall Bladder, Pancreas, and Spleen Surgery

Cholecystectomy

Four studies^{13,27-29} were found comparing cholecystectomy performed by DVSS and CLS. A study of Ruurda et al²⁷ is RCT but

TABLE 2. Meta-Analyses Results for Each Surgical Indication and Outcome Included

| Outcome | Studies | Patients | I ² % | Method | Effect 95% CI |
|------------------------------|---------|----------|------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| Nissen fundoplication | | | | | |
| Surgery time (min) | 4 (4) | 160 | 88 | MD (IV, rand) | 20.67 (−9.69, 51.02) |
| Incision-closure time (min) | 2 (2) | 90 | 48 | MD (IV, rand) | −8.40 (−35.91, 19.10) |
| LOS (d) | 4 (4) | 160 | 2 | MD (IV, fix) | −0.08 (−0.41, 0.25) |
| Complications | 9 (4) | 398 | 64 | RD (M-H, rand) | −0.02 (−0.12, 0.08) |
| Open conversions | 9 (4) | 398 | 0 | RD (M-H, fix) | −0.01 (−0.05, 0.03) |
| Total conversions | 9 (4) | 398 | 0 | RD (M-H, fix) | 0.00 (−0.04, 0.04) |
| Costs (\$) | 2 | 60 | 96 | MD (IV, rand) | 1596 (−181, 3374) |
| Heller myotomy | | | | | |
| Perforations | 3 | 252 | 0 | OR (M-H, fix) | 0.11 (0.02, 0.56)* |
| Surgery time (min) | 2 | 182 | 72 | MD (IV, rand) | 38.01 (−8.79, 84.81) |
| Roux-en-Y gastric bypass | | | | | |
| Total conversions | 3 (1) | 160 | 0 | OR (M-H, fix) | 9.46 (1.72, 52.15) [†] |
| Surgery time (min) | 3 (1) | 160 | 98 | MD (IV, rand) | 10.12 (−69.86, 90.11) |
| Complications | 3 (1) | 160 | 0 | OR (M-H, fix) | 0.58 (0.21, 1.64) |
| Open conversions | 3 (1) | 160 | 55 | RD (M-H, rand) | 0.06 (−0.04, 0.16) |
| Gastrectomy | | | | | |
| LOS (d) | 2 | 87 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | −1.38 (−1.84, −0.93)* |
| Bowel function recovery (d) | 2 | 87 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | −0.21 (−0.42, −0.01)* |
| Surgery time (min) | 2 | 87 | 64 | MD (IV, rand) | 37.60 (1.28, 73.92) [†] |
| EBL (mL) | 2 | 67 | 81 | MD (IV, rand) | 15.88 (−51.84, 83.59) |
| Lymph nodes (number) | 2 | 87 | 4 | MD (IV, fix) | 0.58 (−4.66, 5.81) |
| Complications | 2 | 87 | 0 | OR (M-H, fix) | 0.44 (0.07, 2.94) |
| Cholecystectomy | | | | | |
| LOS (d) | 2 | 467 | 66 | MD (IV, rand) | −0.73 (−1.43, −0.03)* |
| Surgery time (min) | 4 (1) | 511 | 43 | MD (IV, fix) | 16.96 (7.95, 25.96) [†] |
| Costs (\$) | 2 | 124 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | 1,692 (1,139, 2,245) [†] |
| Complications | 3 | 491 | 15 | OR (M-H, fix) | 2.15 (0.64, 7.25) |
| Total conversions | 3 (1) | 487 | 0 | RD (M-H, fix) | −0.01 (−0.04, 0.02) |
| Incision-closure time (min) | 2 (1) | 120 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | 4.14 (−6.62, 14.89) |
| Colorectal resection | | | | | |
| Open conversions | 6 | 520 | 17 | RD (M-H, fix) | −0.04 (−0.08, 0.00)* |
| Surgery time (min) | 7 | 532 | 85 | MD (IV, rand) | 39.42 (14.99, 63.84) [†] |
| Costs (\$) | 2 | 69 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | 792 (42, 1,543) [†] |
| LOS (d) | 6 | 505 | 67 | MD (IV, rand) | −0.26 (−1.55, 1.02) |
| EBL (mL) | 5 | 214 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | −7.04 (−22.73, 8.66) |
| Total conversions | 6 | 520 | 35 | RD (M-H, fix) | −0.01 (−0.05, 0.04) |
| Complications | 6 | 526 | 0 | OR (M-H, fix) | 0.99 (0.59, 1.65) |
| Lymph nodes (number) | 4 | 442 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | −0.20 (−2.40, 2.00) |
| Distal resection margin (cm) | 3 | 336 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | 0.38 (−0.18, 0.95) |
| Bowel function recovery (d) | 3 | 424 | 0 | MD (IV, fix) | −0.11 (−0.46, 0.23) |
| Time to oral diet (d) | 3 | 424 | 76 | MD (IV, rand) | −0.26 (−0.74, 0.22) |

*Statistically significant differences favoring da Vinci surgical system.

[†]Statistically significant differences favoring conventional laparoscopic surgery.

CI indicates confidence interval; LOS, length of stay; EBL, estimated blood loss; \$, American dollars; MD, median difference; RD, risk difference; OR, odds ratio; IV, inverse variance; M-H, Mantel-Haenszel; Fix, fixed effects; Rand, random effects; (n), number of randomized controlled trials.

no blinding was included nor was any statistical comparison made of the baseline characteristics of the established groups. The remaining studies also showed a lack of randomization and blinding; one study¹⁵ also failed to compare the baseline characteristics of the established groups, one²⁸ failed to provide *P* values for this comparison, and one²⁹ found a significant difference in the alkaline phosphatase levels of the 2 groups.

The length of hospital stay pooled MD was −0.73 and 95% CI was −1.43, −0.03. Therefore, meta-analysis detected a significant difference of 0.7 days less for DVSS.

Surgery time was longer with DVSS, with 1,²⁸ 20,¹⁵ 25,²⁸ and 31²⁹ minutes longer durations reported. The pooled MD was 16.96

and 95% CI was 7.95, 25.96. Meta-analysis revealed DVSS to be a significant 17 minutes longer.

Two studies^{28,29} compared the costs of surgery, and both reported DVSS to be significantly more expensive (\$1600 and \$1700, respectively). The pooled MD was 1692 and 95% CI was 1139, 2245. Meta-analysis confirmed DVSS to be a significant \$1692 more expensive than CLS.

Two studies^{15,28} reported the percentage of complications with DVSS and CLS to be similar, whereas one study²⁹ reported similar rates of wound infection and biliary hemorrhage but 33% more postoperative complications with DVSS (significance not indicated). Taking these studies together, 5% (6/114) of the DVSS

patients suffered complications compared with 2% of the CLS patients. Pooled OR was 2.15 and 95% CI was 0.64, 7.25 (NSD).

No need for surgical conversion was reported with either technique in 2 studies,^{27,28} whereas one¹⁵ reported a 2% difference in favor of DVSS. In meta-analysis, 1% (1/112) of DVSS patients required surgical conversion compared with 3% (11/375) of CLS patients. Pooled RD was -0.01 and 95% CI was -0.03, 0.02 (NSD).

Three studies²⁷⁻²⁹ reported DVSS to take a nonsignificant 3, 5, and 25 minutes longer respectively in terms of incision-closure time. The pooled MD was 4.14 and 95% CI was -6.62, 14.89 (NSD).

Heemskerk et al²⁹ reported similar preparation and anesthesia induction times for the 2 techniques. Ruurda et al²⁷ reported preoperative time to be a significant 20 minutes longer for DVSS, although the postoperative recovery time was similar.

Giulianotti et al¹⁵ reported DVSS surgery time for the first 26 procedures to be greater than that for the last 26 procedures (97 minutes compared with 67 minutes; $P = 0.002$), whereas Heemskerk et al²⁹ found no correlation between intervention list number and surgery time. Ruurda et al²⁷ and Breintestein et al²⁸ did not examine the learning curve, excluding the first DVSS interventions from analysis.

In conclusion, cholecystectomy performed by DVSS is associated with a shorter hospital stay than CLS, but surgery times are longer.

Splenectomy

In a controlled, nonrandomized, nonblinded study with a small sample size ($N = 12$), Bodner et al³⁰ compared splenectomy for the treatment of hematological abnormalities performed through DVSS and CLS. DVSS was associated with a significant increase in costs of €2800. Surgery time with DVSS was also 30 minutes longer, although this increase was not significant. The length of hospital stay was similar with both surgical methods (6-7 days), as was the loss of blood. No surgical conversions were necessary with either technique, nor were either associated with any major complications.

It is hard to draw any firm conclusions from a single study, although the information it provides suggests that DVSS is more expensive and tends to be a longer procedure than CLS, but does not differ from it in terms of other variables.

Colorectal Surgery

Colorectal Resection

Seven controlled, nonrandomized studies were found comparing DVLSS and CLS for colorectal resection in the treatment of benign and malignant disease.³¹⁻³⁷ Those of Delaney et al³⁷ and Pigazzi et al³⁴ had small sample sizes ($N = 12$). Rawlings et al³³ made 2 comparisons depending on the part of the colon where surgery was required. Baik et al³⁹ report an RCT, but this was eliminated from the analysis because it included the same patients as Baik et al.³¹ Although all these papers focus on colorectal resections, it should be noted that the sections removed and the underlying diseases were not the same. Delaney et al³⁷ included resections of the right or sigmoid colon for the treatment of diverticular disease and adenocarcinoma; D'Annibale et al³⁶ included resections of the ileum, colon, or rectum for the treatment of benign and malignant colorectal disease; Woste et al³⁵ examined resections of the sigmoid colon for the treatment of diverticulitis; Pigazzi et al³⁴ focused on low anterior resections for the treatment of rectal cancer; Rawlings et al³³ examined resections of the right or sigmoid colon for the treatment of polyps, diverticulitis, and cancer; Spinoglio et al³² included resections of the right and left colon as well as anterior rectal resection for the treatment of colorectal cancer; and finally, Baik et al³¹ focused on mesorectal resections for the treatment of rectal cancer. Although none of the studies were randomized or

blinded they were of good quality, although Woste et al³⁵ failed to record the baseline characteristics of both groups.

Surgery time with DVSS was reported 6,³⁴ 18,³⁶ 39,³³ 64,³⁵ 67,³⁷ and 118 minutes³² longer. One study³¹ reported DVSS to be 1 minute shorter. The pooled MD was 39.42 and 95% CI was 14.99, 63.84. Meta-analysis confirmed surgery time with DVSS to be a significant 39 minutes longer than with CLS.

Delaney et al³⁷ and Rawlings et al³³ reported DVSS to be \$800 and \$1400 more costly than CLS, respectively. The pooled MD was 792 and 95% CI was 42, 1543. Meta-analysis revealed DVSS to be a significant US\$792 more expensive.

Only 2% (4/199) of the DVSS patients required switching to OS compared with 6% (18/321) of CLS patients. The pooled RD was -4% and 95% CI was -8%, 0%. Meta-analysis revealed DVSS to have 4% less risk of conversion to OS compared with CLS. However, a total of 6% of the DVSS patients had to be switched to some alternative form of surgery. The pooled RD was 1% and 95% CI was -5%, 4% (NSD).

The length of hospital stay was reported similar in one study,³⁶ whereas 2 studies^{34,37} reported DVSS to be associated with 0.5 and 0.9 days longer stay, and 3 study³¹⁻³³ reported longer stays for CLS of 0.5, 0.6, and a 1.9 days. The pooled MD was -0.26 and 95% CI was -1.55, 1.02 (NSD).

Five comparisons between the surgery types were made in terms of the blood lost.³³⁻³⁷ Of them, 3^{33,34,36} reported greater blood loss with CLS, whereas 2 studies^{35,37} reported greater losses with DVSS. The pooled MD was -7.04 and 95% CI was -22.73, 8.66 (NSD).

Some 15% (30/199) of the DVSS patients suffered some complication compared with 16% (52/327) of the CLS patients. The pooled OR was 0.99 and 95% CI was 0.59, 1.65 (NSD).

No significant differences were reported in the number of lymphatic ganglia resected (pooled MD: -0.20 and 95% CI: -2.40, 2.00). Neither were significant differences reported in terms of the distal resection margin (pooled MD: 0.38 and 95% CI: -0.18, 0.95), or time to recovery of peristalsis (pooled MD: -0.11 and 95% CI: -0.46, 0.23). Two studies^{32,36} reported no difference in the time to return to an oral diet, although one³¹ reported DVSS to be associated with 1 day further delay (pooled MD: -0.26 and 95% CI: -0.74, 0.22).

Baik et al³¹ reported NSD with respect to changes in hemoglobin. D'Annibale et al³⁶ reported 2% of the CLS patients to require a transfusion, whereas none required this in the DVSS group.

Rawlings et al³³ reported the surgery time to fall from more than 300 minutes to 200 minutes between the first 17 DVSS patients and the last patients. Spinoglio et al³² reported significant differences in surgery time between the first and last 25 cases, and the first 20 and last 30 cases.

In conclusion, DVSS would appear to take longer and be more expensive than CLS but less risk of conversion to OS, although there appear to be no differences in blood loss, number of complications, number of total conversions, or length of hospital stay.

Rectopexy

Heemskerk et al³⁸ compared rectopexy by DVSS and CLS in the treatment of rectal prolapse. This study was controlled but not randomized nor blinded in any way, and differences were found in the age of the patients in the 2 groups.

Surgery was a significant 39 minutes longer with DVSS and a significant €600 more expensive. The length of hospital stay was similar in both groups at around 4 days. Some 5% of DVSS patients had to be switched to another type of surgery; no such conversions were required in CLS. No significant differences were seen in terms of time to defecation, postoperative constipation, or incontinence.

In conclusion, the results of this single study suggest DVSS to be slower and more costly than CLS, although comparable in other respects.

DISCUSSION

The only previous systematic review of DVSS found was that of Tooher and Pham,³ published in 2004. The present review brings this work up to date. The number of articles published on this technology has increased progressively over the years. Those examined in the present study allowed meta-analyses of the results to be performed in some cases, providing a better view of the safety and efficacy of DVSS compared with CLS.

In general, the studies included in the present work were limited in their scope and not of great quality. Thirty-one studies were included but only 6 of which were RCTs. As well as the general lack of randomization and blinding, about half of the studies failed to compare the baseline characteristics of the patients in each treatment group or found them to show significant differences. However, the objectives, follow-up, and interventions performed were indicators of good quality. A variety of biases as the design are not RCTs are inevitably at play in these studies constituting a limitation for the conclusions of our review.

No clinical preference could be established for DVSS or CLS with respect to fundoplication. However, DVSS was more expensive, as might be expected, and is therefore not justified in this procedure. Heller myotomy assisted by DVSS was associated with a lower risk of perforations, and one study suggested it to be associated with a better postoperative quality of life than CLS. Thus, in this case, DVSS would appear preferable. With respect to gastric bypass, DVSS was associated with more surgical conversions than CLS. Gastrectomy by way of DVSS was associated with a shorter recovery time and shorter hospital stay, although the duration of surgery was longer. Overall, these findings might be considered favorable toward DVSS, although the costs of the procedure are still to be determined and compared with those of CLS. The single study that involved bariatric surgery reported the DVSS surgery time to be longer and more costly: it would not, therefore, appear to be justifiable in this setting.

When cholecystectomy via DVSS and CLS were compared, the former was associated with a shorter hospital stay but a longer surgery time and higher costs. There is a finding on the length of stay coming from 2 non-RCT studies without blinding for this variable that could be spurious or produced as a consequence of a better recovery not reflected in the complication rate. A Cochrane review on cholecystectomy by robot-assisted laparoscopy that included DVSS was found,⁴¹ which indicated this technique to be safe but to afford no significant advantages over CLS. One study³⁰ with a small sample size compared splenectomy via the 2 techniques; this reported no advantages that might justify the higher cost found to be associated with DVSS.

Colorectal resection (for the treatment of different pathologies and involving different gut sections) via DVSS was found to take longer and to be more costly than the CLS procedure, with less risk to open conversion. Its generalized use in this context is not clear. In a review published in 2007, Ng et al⁴² reported benefits to surgeons from DVSS in abdominal resection procedures, but more research is needed to determine whether these are translatable to patients. A single study was found that compared the 2 techniques in the performance of rectopexy; no benefits were reported that could justify the extra cost of DVSS in this context.

Given the appreciable learning curve associated with DVSS, surgery times might be expected to improve as more experience is gained. Indeed, articles that examine the first DVSS operations performed by a surgical team report results different to those obtained

when the team has become more experienced. However, it is quite possible that surgical teams undertaking research and publishing their results are more experienced and more skillful than others, and therefore, achieve above average results. Thus, there is a risk of publication bias that might overestimate the benefits of DVSS.

When establishing recommendations for the use of one surgical technique or another for a particular indication, it is appropriate to also consider the evidence comparing OS and laparoscopic surgery.^{43,44}

The evidence available for assessing DVSS is limited. Only 6 RCTs were found, and the sample size in most studies was small. Certainly, the lack of blinding can be understood to some extent because it is easy to tell which patients have undergone which type of surgery. However, approximately 40% of the controlled studies made use of historic controls, limiting their comparability, and perhaps introducing bias because the care of these patients may have improved over the years in aspects unrelated to the surgical technique employed.

When meta-analyses were possible, the statistical heterogeneity was often very high. When one study accounted for the majority of this heterogeneity, the possible existence of clinical or methodological differences between this study and the remainder in question was examined. However, in most cases no such differences were found.

Where necessary, it would be interesting to obtain the extra information required for further meta-analyses to be performed from the authors of the examined studies (especially the RCTs). In the present work the importance of each variable examined was assessed depending on the criterion of the reviewing authors. It would be interesting to use decision-making tools such as the GRADE tool, or to involve a panel of experts to help decide on the weight that should be given to the different variables considered. A series of key variables would be useful because, in the present work, the balance in favor of one technique or another is tipped by variables not directly related to the quality of the long-term surgical outcome. For example, the results for economic variables may presently weigh too heavy in the comparisons made.

Further, DVSS or CLS may offer advantages for the surgeon that were not usually taken into account in the examined studies. For example, improved ergonomic conditions or features that improve the surgeon's skills could reduce the stress suffered during the intervention.

It would appear that DVSS is a developing technology rather than one set to immediately substitute CLS. Further studies should therefore be undertaken to determine in which indications it offers advantages.

The present review is limited in that it examines no single arm safety studies. However, it does take into account safety variables compared in 2-armed studies, such as the number of complications and the number of surgical conversions, etc. Given the requirement that all studies should contain a control group, information that may have complemented the present data with respect to the DVSS learning curve were probably excluded.

In conclusion, compared with CLS, DVSS is associated with fewer Heller myotomy-associated perforations, a more rapid intestinal recovery and a shorter hospital stay when used to perform gastrectomy (although surgery times are longer), with a shorter hospital stay (but a longer surgery time) when used to perform cholecystectomy, with more surgical conversions when used to perform gastric bypass, and longer surgery time when used to perform colorectal resections. For other procedures, no differences were found between the techniques.

Further RCTs with DVSS are needed to confirm the advantages that this technique seems to offer with respect to Heller

myotomy and colorectal resection. In addition, longer term results are needed, especially in the oncological context, with respect to gastrectomy and colorectal resection. Further cost analyses—for example with respect to cholecystectomy—would also be of use.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank the staff of the Agencia Lain Entralgo library for the help provided in locating articles, Amaya Sánchez Gómez for her help in checking the initial version of the report, and the staff of the Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias of the Agencia Lain Entralgo for their help in writing the report.

REFERENCES

- Camberlin C, Senn A, Leys M, et al. *Robot-Assisted Surgery: Health Technology Assessment, Health Services Research (HSR)*. Brussels, Belgium: Belgian Health Care Knowledge Center (KCE); 2009. KCE reports 104C (D/2009/10.273/09).
- Oxman AD, Cook DJ, Guyatt GH; Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. Users' guides to the medical literature. VI: how to use an overview. *JAMA*. 1994;272:1367–1371.
- Toohar R, Pham C. *The da Vinci Surgical Robotics System: Technology Overview ASERNIP-S Report No. 45*. Adelaide, South Australia: ASERNIP-S; 2004. ISBN: 0909844658.
- Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ; Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. Users' guides to the medical literature. II: how to use an article about therapy or prevention. A: are the results of the study valid? *JAMA*. 1993;270:2598–2601.
- Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ; Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. Users' guides to the medical literature. II: how to use an article about therapy or prevention. B: What were the results and will they help me in caring for my patients? *JAMA*. 1994;271:59–63.
- Higgins JPT, Green S. *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 5.0.1* [updated September 2008]. The Cochrane Collaboration; West Sussex, England 2008.
- Hozo SP, Djulbegovic B, Hozo I. Estimating the mean and variance from the median, range, and the size of a sample. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2005;5:13.
- Muller-Stich BP, Reiter MA, Wente MN, et al. Robot-assisted versus conventional laparoscopic fundoplication: short-term outcome of a pilot randomized controlled trial. *Surg Endosc*. 2007;21:1800–1805.
- Draaisma WA, Ruurda JP, Scheffer RC, et al. Randomized clinical trial of standard laparoscopic versus robot-assisted laparoscopic Nissen fundoplication for gastro-oesophageal reflux disease. *Br J Surg*. 2006;93:1351–1359.
- Morino M, Pellegrino L, Giaccone C, et al. Randomized clinical trial of robot-assisted versus laparoscopic Nissen fundoplication. *Br J Surg*. 2006;93:553–558.
- Nakadi IE, Melot C, Closset J, et al. Evaluation of da Vinci Nissen fundoplication clinical results and cost minimization. *World J Surg*. 2006;30:1050–1054.
- Hartmann J, Menenakos C, Ordemann J, et al. Long-term results of quality of life after standard laparoscopic vs. robot-assisted laparoscopic fundoplications for gastro-oesophageal reflux disease: a comparative clinical trial. *Int J Med Robot*. 2009;5:32–37.
- Heemskerk J, van Gemert WG, Greve JW, et al. Robot-assisted versus conventional laparoscopic Nissen fundoplication: a comparative retrospective study on costs and time consumption. *Surg Laparosc Endosc Percutan Tech*. 2007;17:1–4.
- Ayav A, Bresler L, Brunaud L, et al. Early results of one-year robotic surgery using the Da Vinci system to perform advanced laparoscopic procedures. *J Gastrointest Surg*. 2004;8:720–726.
- Giulianotti PC, Coratti A, Angelini M, et al. Robotics in general surgery: personal experience in a large community hospital. *Arch Surg*. 2003;138:777–784.
- Melvin WS, Needleman BJ, Krause KR, et al. Computer-enhanced vs. standard laparoscopic antireflux surgery. *J Gastrointest Surg*. 2002;6:11–15.
- Huffman LC, Pandalai PK, Boulton BJ, et al. Robotic Heller myotomy: a safe operation with higher postoperative quality-of-life indices. *Surgery*. 2007;142:613–618.
- Iqbal A, Haider M, Desai K, et al. Technique and follow-up of minimally invasive Heller myotomy for achalasia. *Surg Endosc*. 2006;20:394–401.
- Horgan S, Galvani C, Gorodner MV, et al. Robotic-assisted Heller myotomy versus laparoscopic Heller myotomy for the treatment of esophageal achalasia: multicenter study. *J Gastrointest Surg*. 2005;9:1020–1029.
- Sanchez BR, Mohr CJ, Morton JM, et al. Comparison of totally robotic laparoscopic Roux-en-Y gastric bypass and traditional laparoscopic Roux-en-Y gastric bypass. *Surg Obes Relat Dis*. 2005;1:549–554.
- Hubens G, Balliu L, Ruppert M, et al. Roux-en-Y gastric bypass procedure performed with the da Vinci robot system: is it worth it? *Surg Endosc*. 2008;22:1690–1696.
- Artuso D, Wayne M, Grossi R. Use of robotics during laparoscopic gastric bypass for morbid obesity. *JSLs*. 2005;9:266–268.
- Mohr CJ, Nadzam GS, Curet MJ. Totally robotic Roux-en-Y gastric bypass. *Arch Surg*. 2005;140:779–786.
- Song J, Kang WH, Oh SJ, et al. Role of robotic gastrectomy using da Vinci system compared with laparoscopic gastrectomy: initial experience of 20 consecutive cases. *Surg Endosc*. 2009;23:1204–1211.
- Kim MC, Heo GU, Jung GJ. Robotic gastrectomy for gastric cancer: surgical techniques and clinical merits. *Surg Endosc*. 2010;24:610–615.
- Muhlmann G, Klaus A, Kirchmayr W, et al. DaVinci robotic-assisted laparoscopic bariatric surgery: is it justified in a routine setting? *Obes Surg*. 2003;13:848–854.
- Ruurda JP, Visser PL, Broeders IA. Analysis of procedure time in robot-assisted surgery: comparative study in laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Comput Aided Surg*. 2003;8:24–29.
- Breitenstein S, Nocito A, Puhon M, et al. Robotic-assisted versus laparoscopic cholecystectomy: outcome and cost analyses of a case-matched control study. *Ann Surg*. 2008;247:987–993.
- Heemskerk J, van DR, van Gemert WG, et al. First results after introduction of the four-armed da Vinci surgical system in fully robotic laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Dig Surg*. 2005;22:426–431.
- Bodner J, Kafka-Ritsch R, Lucciarini P, et al. A critical comparison of robotic versus conventional laparoscopic splenectomies. *World J Surg*. 2005;29:982–985.
- Baik SH, Kwon HY, Kim JS, et al. Robotic versus laparoscopic low anterior resection of rectal cancer: short-term outcome of a prospective comparative study. *Ann Surg Oncol*. 2009;16:1480–1487.
- Spinoglio G, Summa M, Priora F, et al. Robotic colorectal surgery: first 50 cases experience. *Dis Colon Rectum*. 2008;51:1627–1632.
- Rawlings AL, Woodland JH, Vegunta RK, et al. Robotic versus laparoscopic colectomy. *Surg Endosc*. 2007;21:1701–1708.
- Pigazzi A, Ellenhorn JD, Ballantyne GH, et al. Robotic-assisted laparoscopic low anterior resection with total mesorectal excision for rectal cancer. *Surg Endosc*. 2006;20:1521–1525.
- Woeste G, Bechstein WO, Wullstein C. Does telerobotic assistance improve laparoscopic colorectal surgery? *Int J Colorectal Dis*. 2005;20:253–257.
- D'Annibale A, Morpurgo E, Ficon V, et al. Robotic and laparoscopic surgery for treatment of colorectal diseases. *Dis Colon Rectum*. 2004;47:2162–2168.
- Delaney CP, Lynch AC, Senagore AJ, et al. Comparison of robotically performed and traditional laparoscopic colorectal surgery. *Dis Colon Rectum*. 2003;46:1633–1639.
- Heemskerk J, de Hoog DE, van Gemert WG, et al. Robot-assisted vs. conventional laparoscopic rectopexy for rectal prolapse: a comparative study on costs and time. *Dis Colon Rectum*. 2007;50:1825–1830.
- Baik SH, Ko YT, Kang CM, et al. Robotic tumor-specific mesorectal excision of rectal cancer: short-term outcome of a pilot randomized trial. *Surg Endosc*. 2008;22:1601–1608.
- Ball AJ, Gambill B, Fabrizio MD, et al. Prospective longitudinal comparative study of early health-related quality-of-life outcomes in patients undergoing surgical treatment for localized prostate cancer: a short-term evaluation of five approaches from a single institution. *J Endourol*. 2006;20:723–731.
- Gurusamy KS, Samraj K, Fusai G, et al. Robot assistant for laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2009;CD006578.
- Ng SS, Lee JF, Yiu RY, et al. Telerobotic-assisted laparoscopic abdominoperineal resection for low rectal cancer: report of the first case in Hong Kong and China with an updated literature review. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2007;13:2514–2518.
- Draaisma WA, Buskens E, Bais JE, et al. Randomized clinical trial and follow-up study of cost-effectiveness of laparoscopic versus conventional Nissen fundoplication. *Br J Surg*. 2006;93:690–697.
- Jayne DG, Guillou PJ, Thorpe H, et al. Randomized trial of laparoscopic-assisted resection of colorectal carcinoma: 3-year results of the UK MRC CLASICC Trial Group. *J Clin Oncol*. 2007;25:3061–3068.

**5. ARTÍCULO 2: Meta-analysis of observational studies on the safety
and effectiveness of robotic gynaecological surgery**

Metaanálisis de estudios observacionales sobre la seguridad y efectividad de la cirugía robótica en ginecología.

(British Journal of Surgery 2010: 1772-1783)

Objetivo: El objetivo de este estudio es comparar la seguridad y eficacia de la cirugía robótica, cirugía abierta y cirugía laparoscópica convencional en diferentes indicaciones ginecológicas, a través de una revisión sistemática de la literatura.

Métodos: Se realizó una búsqueda de revisiones sistemáticas previas en las bases de datos: DARE, HTA, Colaboración Cochrane y Hayes Inc. Además, se realizó una búsqueda de estudios primarios en las bases de datos: Medline, Embase y CINAHL. Se evaluó la calidad de los estudios y se realizaron metaanálisis.

Resultados: Veintidós estudios fueron incluidos en la revisión. Todos fueron controlados, pero ninguno fue aleatorio. La mayoría eran retrospectivos con controles históricos. Los entornos en los que se utilizó la cirugía robótica incluyen la histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio, la histerectomía radical para el tratamiento de cáncer de cuello uterino, la histerectomía para el tratamiento de la enfermedad benigna, la miomectomía, sacrocolopexy, reanastomosis trompa de Falopio y anexectomía. La cirugía robótica logra una menor estancia hospitalaria y menor pérdida de sangre que la cirugía abierta - todo con el mismo nivel de seguridad. En comparación con la cirugía laparoscópica convencional, la cirugía robótica logra la reducción de las pérdidas de sangre, menos conversiones y menos complicaciones en la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio. No se registraron diferencias significativas en los otros indicadores evaluados, aunque la cirugía robótica se asoció con una reducción clínicamente significativa en la pérdida de sangre.

Conclusiones: La evidencia disponible indica que la cirugía robótica puede ofrecer ciertas ventajas con respecto a los resultados a corto plazo. Sin embargo, estos resultados deben ser interpretados con cautela, estudios rigurosos, además, se deben realizar para evaluar los resultados clínicos a largo plazo y la rentabilidad.

Meta-analysis of observational studies on the safety and effectiveness of robotic gynaecological surgery

M. Reza, S. Maeso, J. A. Blasco and E. Andradás

Health Technology Assessment Unit, Laín Entralgo Agency, C/Gran Vía 27, 7º, Madrid 28013, Spain

Correspondence to: Ms M. Reza (e-mail: mercedes.reza@salud.madrid.org)

Background: The safety and effectiveness of robotic, open and conventional laparoscopic surgery in gynaecological surgery was assessed in a systematic review of the literature. This will enable the general surgical community to understand where robotic surgery stands in gynaecology.

Methods: A search was made for previous systematic reviews in the Abstracts of Reviews of Effects, Health Technology Assessment, Cochrane Collaboration and Hayes Inc. databases. In addition, the MEDLINE, Embase and CINAHL databases were searched for primary studies. The quality of studies was assessed and meta-analyses were performed.

Results: Twenty-two studies were included in the review. All were controlled but none was randomized. The majority were retrospective with historical controls. The settings in which robotic surgery was used included hysterectomy for malignant and benign disease, myomectomy, sacrocolpopexy, fallopian tube reanastomosis and adnexectomy. Robotic surgery achieved a shorter hospital stay and less blood loss than open surgery. Compared with conventional laparoscopic surgery, robotic surgery achieved reduced blood loss and fewer conversions during the staging of endometrial cancer. No clinically significant differences were recorded for the other indications tested.

Conclusion: The available evidence shows that robotic surgery offers limited advantages with respect to short-term outcomes. However, the clinical outcomes should be interpreted with caution owing to the methodological quality of the studies.

Paper accepted 27 July 2010

Published online 14 October 2010 in Wiley Online Library (www.bjs.co.uk). DOI: 10.1002/bjs.7269

Introduction

Advantages of laparoscopic surgery, such as a more rapid postoperative recovery and more acceptable cosmetic results, have been known for many years. Laparoscopy has stimulated the development of new techniques, including robotic surgery. A number of robotic surgery devices have been developed, such as the Automated Endoscopic System for Optimal Positioning (AESOP®; Computer Motion, Santa Barbara, California, USA), the Zeus Surgical System® (Computer Motion) and the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS; Intuitive Surgical, Mountain View, Sunnyvale, California, USA). The DVSS is the only robotic system cleared by the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) currently on the market. In Europe, it has full

regulatory clearance and the system has got the Conformité Européenne (CE) mark.

The DVSS device is an operator-directed robot that allows surgeons to work in certain areas of the body using very small incisions. Via a console, and with the aid of a stereoscopic viewer, the surgeon controls the robotic arms with hand controls and pedals. The movements of the surgeon's hands are digitalized and transmitted to the robotic arms, which make identical movements in the surgical field. These arms have joints that allow free movement comparable to that of human arms and hands. They are also fitted with an antitremble filter. The surgeon sees a three-dimensional image of the surgical field on a monitor, provided by the binocular viewer on the console. The images show the intraoperative area and the surgical instruments at the ends of the robotic arms. The movements of the robotic arms cease if the surgeon looks away from the screen¹. The control console and the robotic

[Correction added after online publication 14 October 2010: the article type Systematic review was corrected to Meta-analysis]

arms are connected via a data cable. Telesurgery is possible, in which the surgeon and patient are not in the same room, although this is limited by data transfer speeds. In the USA, the FDA currently allows the use of this device only when both surgeon and patient are physically together.

Advantages of the DVSS include the potential for greater precision, lower error rates, reduced bleeding, a shorter hospital stay, more rapid patient recovery, smaller scars and reduced pain. It is said to be easier to master than conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS)². It should be remembered, however, that the robotic arms follow the movements of the surgeon, whose experience, skill and judgement all influence the surgical results obtained. It also provides ergonomic advantages for the surgeon, although it is also reported to suffer the drawbacks of lack of tactile feedback, longer surgery times and higher costs².

The DVSS is now used in general, urological, gynaecological and cardiothoracic surgery³. The FDA cleared its use for gynaecological procedures in April 2005, based on the results of pioneering work in which this system was used to perform myotomies⁴. Since then, interest in this system for use in the gynaecological setting has increased rapidly.

The safety and effectiveness of robotic surgery using the DVSS, open surgery (OS) and CLS in the gynaecological setting was assessed in a systematic review of the literature. This will help the general surgical community to understand the present status of robotic surgery in gynaecology.

Methods

A systematic review of the literature was undertaken, in which the best evidence regarding the safety and effectiveness of the DVSS in the gynaecological setting was analysed. An exhaustive search was made for published systematic reviews and assessment reports in the databases of the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination (Abstracts of Reviews of Effects (DARE) and Health Technology Assessment (HTA) databases), the Cochrane Collaboration and Hayes Inc. A single systematic review of good quality that discussed the DVSS was found (published in 2004)⁵, from which individual studies were retrieved. In addition, primary studies published from 2003 onwards were sought in the MEDLINE, Embase and CINAHL databases. No further search restrictions were imposed. The last search was performed in October 2009. The following search terms were used: Da Vinci (tw) OR Davinci (tw) OR ((robotics (MESH) OR robot* (tw)) AND surg* (tw)). The complete strategy used with each database has been published elsewhere³. A manual search was also performed

using the references cited in these articles, and experts in surgery were contacted.

For inclusion, studies needed to be in humans, and to compare the DVSS with CLS or OS in a gynaecological setting. Studies without control groups were excluded, as were those involving animals or cadavers. The quality of the selected studies was assessed against a checklist^{6,7} that examined aspects of the methodology followed. Quality aspects were, among others, whether there was a clearly defined question, whether the study was randomized and blinded, the type of follow-up, whether there was equality in patient management, and the comparability of the groups established. A data collection form was used to record all relevant information, such as design, sample size, hospital(s) involved, type of intervention, characteristics of the technologies being compared, patient characteristics and results.

Statistical analysis

Meta-analysis of the results was considered when results were available from at least two studies. Significance was set at $P \leq 0.050$. The possible clinical and statistical heterogeneity of the gathered results was first examined and meta-analysis performed only if the former was low. Statistical heterogeneity was considered high when I^2 was at least 50 per cent and low when it was below 50 per cent. If high, a sensitivity analysis was performed to identify the study that contributed most to the heterogeneity, and possible differences sought between this and the remaining studies⁸. In meta-analysis, the fixed-effects method was used when the statistical heterogeneity was low, and the random-effects method when it was high.

For dichotomous variables, meta-analysis of odds ratios (ORs) was performed using the Mantel-Haenszel method, because the sample sizes reported in the studies were fairly small. In such analyses, if one of the studies reported no events in any treatment group, or if events were reported in all patients in all groups, meta-analysis of risk difference was performed using the same method.

For continuous variables, meta-analysis of the differences between means was performed using the inverse variance method. When subgroups had to be combined for meta-analysis, the formulas of Higgins and Green⁸ were used to obtain the means and joint standard deviations. When only medians were available, these were used as estimates of means^{8,9}. When a study failed to indicate the standard deviation, this variable was calculated from the standard error of the mean, 95 per cent confidence interval, t value or the interquartile range⁸. Some studies only provided ranges; in such instances the standard deviation

was estimated as indicated by Hozo and co-workers⁹ using the formula $\text{total range}/4$ (as long as there were 70 or fewer subjects).

Meta-analyses and graphical representation of the results were undertaken using Review Manager (RevMan) software version 5.0 (The Nordic Cochrane Centre, Copenhagen, Denmark). ORs and mean differences are presented with 95 per cent confidence intervals.

Results

A total of 2869 potential primary studies were detected in the MEDLINE, Embase and CINAHL databases. This was reduced to 1931 following the elimination of duplicates. After reading the abstracts (full text when necessary) of these studies, 22 were found to meet all the required criteria and were included in the present systematic review and sixteen of them were also included in the quantitative synthesis (Fig. 1).

Fig. 2 summarizes features of the studies according to the quality checklist. All studies were controlled, but none was randomized. None reported a clinical trial. The majority had adequate patient follow-up and were designed on an

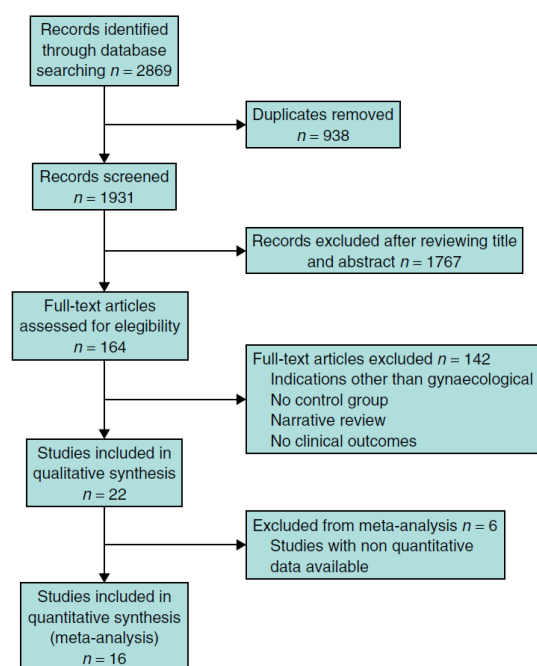


Fig. 1 Flow of information through the different phases of the systematic review

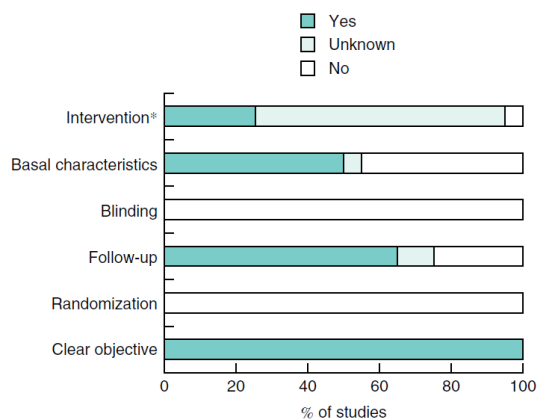


Fig. 2 Quality of included studies. *Apart from the experimental intervention, groups were treated in the same way

intention-to-treat basis. Generally patients who had been diverted to another type of surgery were analysed in their original group. Approximately half of the studies described some difference in baseline characteristics between patient groups. Although information was provided regarding the intervention to which patients were subjected, the majority of studies did not specify whether patients in different groups were managed similarly in other respects. Generally, the collection of data was retrospective, and the different study groups were treated within different time periods. No information – or only that pertaining to patients who had robotic surgery – was provided regarding preoperative and postoperative care, nor were discharge criteria specified.

The indications for which the DVSS was assessed in these studies included: hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer, radical hysterectomy for the treatment of cervical cancer, hysterectomy for the treatment of benign disease, myomectomy, sacrocolopexy, fallopian tube reanastomosis and adnexectomy.

Hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer

Seven articles^{10–16} were included in which use of the DVSS was compared with OS and CLS with regard to hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer (Table 1). Two of these assessed the DVSS in a subgroup of obese patients^{11,16} that formed part of other studies^{10,15} included in the present analysis. To avoid the duplication of data from these patients, these subgroups were analysed separately.

Table 1 Studies included in the review

| Reference | No. of patients | | | | Design | Centre | Intervention period | Control period | Surgeons |
|--|-----------------|------|-----|-----|--------|--------|---------------------|----------------|-----------|
| | Total | DVSS | OS | CLS | | | | | |
| Hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer | | | | | | | | | |
| Boggess <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹⁰ | 322 | 103 | 138 | 81 | HC | S | 2005–2007 | 2000–2004 | NS |
| Gehring <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹¹ (obese patients) | 81 | 49 | — | 32 | HC | S | 2005–2007 | 2000–2004 | NS |
| Veljovich <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹² | 160 | 25 | 131 | 4 | HC | S | 2006–2007 | 2005–2006 | NS |
| Bell <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹³ | 110 | 40 | 40 | 30 | HC | S | 2005–2007 | 2000–2007 | Same |
| DeNardis <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹⁴ | 162 | 56 | 106 | — | HC | S | 2006–2007 | < 2006 | NS |
| Seamon <i>et al.</i> 2009 ¹⁵ | 181 | 105 | — | 76 | HC | S | 2006–2008 | 1998–2005 | Same |
| Seamon <i>et al.</i> 2009 ¹⁶ (obese patients) | 300 | 109 | 191 | — | HC | M | 2006–2008 | 1998–2006 | Different |
| Radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer | | | | | | | | | |
| Sert and Abeler 2007 ¹⁷ | 15 | 7 | — | 8 | HC | S | 2005–2006 | 2004–2005 | Same |
| Boggess <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹⁸ | 100 | 51 | 49 | — | HC | S | 2005–2007 | < 2005 | NS |
| Ko <i>et al.</i> 2008 ¹⁹ | 48 | 16 | 32 | — | HC | S | 2006–2007 | 2004–2006 | Different |
| Magrina <i>et al.</i> 2008 ²⁰ | 93 | 27 | 35 | 31 | HC | S | 2003–2006 | 1993–2006 | NS |
| Nezhat <i>et al.</i> 2008 ²¹ | 43 | 13 | — | 30 | HC | S | 2006–2008 | 2000–2006 | NS |
| Estape <i>et al.</i> 2009 ²² | 63 | 32 | 14 | 17 | HC | S | 2006–2008 | 2004–2006 | NS |
| Maggioni <i>et al.</i> 2009 ²³ | 80 | 40 | 40 | — | HC | S | 2007–2009 | < 2007 | NS |
| Hysterectomy for benign disease | | | | | | | | | |
| Payne and Dauterive 2008 ²⁴ | 200 | 100 | — | 100 | HC | S | 2006–2007 | 2004–2006 | Same |
| Myomectomy | | | | | | | | | |
| Advincula <i>et al.</i> 2007 ²⁵ | 58 | 29 | 29 | — | P | S | 2000–2004 | 2000–2004 | Different |
| Bedient <i>et al.</i> 2009 ²⁶ | 81 | 40 | — | 41 | HC | S | 2004–2008 | 2000–2008 | NS |
| Nezhat <i>et al.</i> 2009 ²⁷ | 50 | 15 | — | 35 | P | S | 2006–2007 | 2006–2007 | Same |
| Fallopian tube reanastomosis | | | | | | | | | |
| Rodgers <i>et al.</i> 2007 ²⁸ | 67 | 26 | 41 | — | P | S | 2001–2006 | 2001–2006 | Different |
| Dharia Patel <i>et al.</i> 2008 ²⁹ | 28 | 18 | 10 | — | HC | S | 2003–2004 | 2002–2003 | Different |
| Sacrocopopexy | | | | | | | | | |
| Geller <i>et al.</i> 2008 ³⁰ | 178 | 73 | 105 | — | HC | M | 2006–2008 | 2004–2008 | Different |
| Adnexectomy | | | | | | | | | |
| Magrina <i>et al.</i> 2009 ³¹ | 176 | 85 | — | 91 | P | S | 2003–2008 | 2003–2008 | Same |

DVSS, Da Vinci Surgical System®; OS, open surgery; CLS, conventional laparoscopic surgery; HC, historical controls; S, single centre; NS, not stated; M, multicentre; P, Prospective.

Four studies^{10,12–14} compared the DVSS with OS. Meta-analysis showed the DVSS to be significantly associated with a shorter hospital stay, a smaller risk of complications (Fig. 3a), reduced blood loss during surgery (Fig. 4a), a reduction in the need for transfusion, and a greater number of resected lymph nodes. However, it was associated with a longer duration of operation (by a mean of 89.25 min) and a greater risk of needing to convert to another surgical method (OR 11.54, 1.40 to 94.97) (Table 2).

One study compared the DVSS with OS for this indication in obese women (BMI at least 30 kg/m²)¹⁶. No differences were seen with respect to an adequate lymphadenectomy (at least ten lymph nodes resected). However, after adjusting for co-morbidities, history of previous surgery and preoperative stage of disease, use of the DVSS made an adequate lymphadenectomy less

probable (OR 0.22, 0.05 to 0.90). Patients whose procedure had to be converted to open surgery (16 per cent) were not included in the analysis. Use of the DVSS was also associated with reduced blood loss during surgery (mean 109 versus 394 ml; $P < 0.001$) and a reduced need for blood transfusion (OR 0.22, 0.05 to 0.97). Although operating times were longer with the robot, the hospital stay was 2 days shorter and the risk of complications smaller (OR 0.29, 0.13 to 0.65). The differences with respect to the last three variables were all significant.

Four studies^{10,12,13,15} compared the DVSS with CLS (Table 3). Use of the robot was associated with significantly reduced blood loss during surgery: mean difference -75.96 (-142.39 to -9.53) ml (Fig. 4b). The need for a blood transfusion was also reduced with the DVSS (OR 0.24, 0.09 to 0.64) and hospital stay was shorter: mean difference -0.17 (-0.28 to -0.06) days. In addition, the risk of

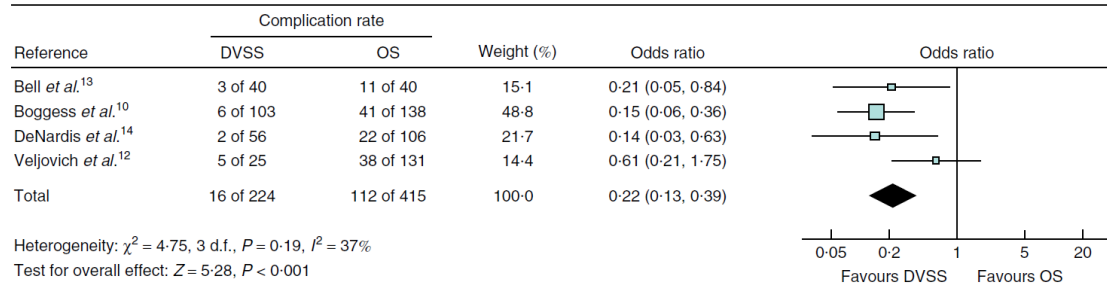
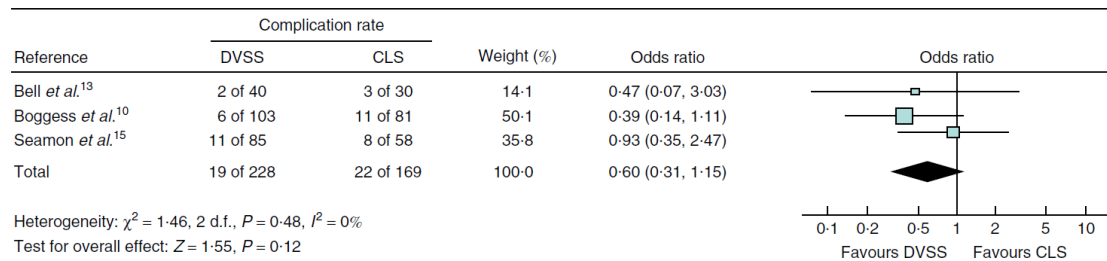
a DVSS versus OS**b** DVSS versus CLS

Fig. 3 Forest plots showing meta-analysis of complications associated with hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer: **a** robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) versus open surgery (OS) and **b** DVSS versus conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS). A Mantel–Haenszel fixed-effects method was used. Odds ratios are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

conversion to another type of surgery was smaller with the DVSS (OR 0.43, 0.21 to 0.85). The overall risk of complications was not significantly different (*Fig. 3b*). The duration of operation varied between the studies, with no significant differences apparent between the DVSS and CLS.

One study¹¹ analysed the results of a subgroup of obese or morbidly obese patients, noting that use of the robot was significantly associated with a shorter operating time, reduced blood loss and a larger number of lymph nodes resected.

Radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer

Seven studies^{17–23} compared the DVSS with CLS or OS in the setting of radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer (*Table 1*).

Five studies^{18–20,22,23} compared the DVSS with OS (*Table 2*). Use of the DVSS was associated with a significantly shorter hospital stay (mean difference -2.05 (-2.80 to -1.29) days), reduced blood loss during surgery (mean difference -334.17 (-459.44 to -208.91) ml)

(*Fig. 5a*) and a reduced need for blood transfusion (OR 0.18, 0.07 to 0.44). No significant differences were seen with respect to duration of operation, number of lymph nodes resected, rate of positive margins, the proportion of patients with complications (*Fig. 6a*) or the need to resort to another type of surgery.

One study²² reported mid-term clinical efficacy data, and found that 31 of 32 patients who a robotic procedure were alive and free from disease after a mean follow-up of 284.2 days, compared with 12 of 14 who underwent OS after a mean of 1382.4 days. This difference was not significant but follow-up times were far from comparable.

Four studies^{17,20–22} compared the DVSS and CLS for this indication (*Table 3*). Use of the robot was associated with reduced blood loss during surgery: mean difference -63.52 (-100.49 to -26.54) ml (*Fig. 5b*). The four studies yielded different results with respect to duration of operation. Surgery with the DVSS required an extra 5 or 12 min compared with CLS^{21,22}, or 31 or 59 min less^{20,17}. Meta-analysis showed there to be no significant difference. Three studies^{20,21,17} reported a shorter hospital stay with a robotic procedure (0.9, 1.1 and 4 days respectively),

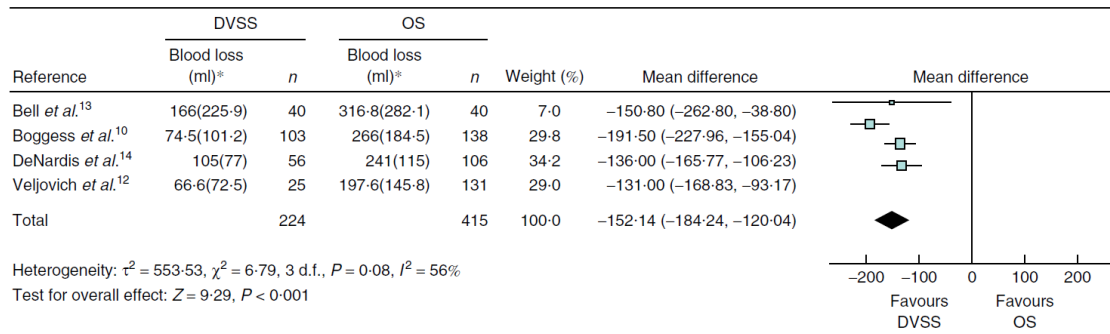
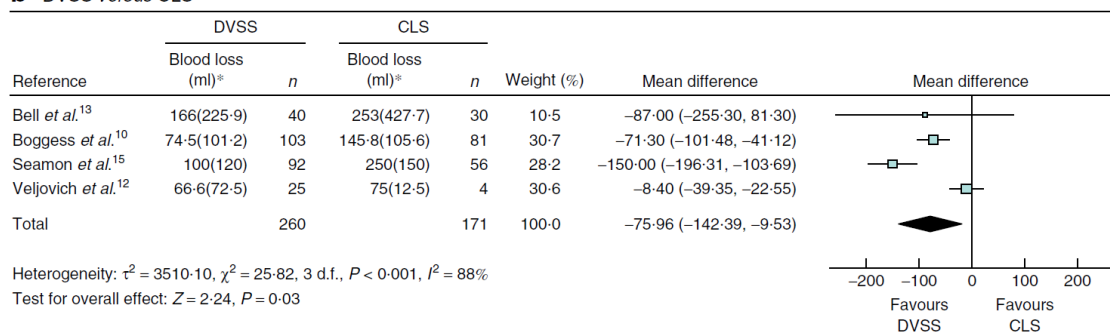
a DVSS versus OS**b** DVSS versus CLS

Fig. 4 Forest plots showing meta-analysis of blood loss associated with hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer: **a** robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) versus open surgery (OS) and **b** DVSS versus conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS). An inverse variance random-effects method was used. *Values are mean(s.d.). Mean differences are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

whereas one²² noted a longer stay (0.3 days). Meta-analysis showed no significant difference in length of stay (Table 3). Nor were there significant differences in number of lymph nodes resected, the need for conversion to another type of surgery or the proportion of patients with complications (Fig. 6b).

No study reported recurrences in either group after 1 year of follow-up. One study²² reported that 31 of 32 patients who had a robotic procedure were alive and disease free after a mean follow-up of 284.2 days compared with all 17 who had CLS after a mean follow-up of 941.6 days. The difference was not significant, but again follow-up times were not comparable.

Hysterectomy for benign disease

One large study²⁴ compared the DVSS with CLS for this indication. Overall the duration of operation was 27 min

longer for robotic surgery ($P < 0.001$), but 13 min shorter when only the last 25 procedures performed were included in the analysis ($P = 0.03$). The DVSS reduced hospital stay by 0.5 days ($P = 0.007$) and blood loss by 52 ml ($P < 0.001$).

Myomectomy

Three studies^{25–27} compared the results for myomectomy performed by means of the DVSS, OS and CLS for the treatment of symptomatic leiomyoma (Table 1).

One study²⁵ compared robotic surgery with OS for this indication. With use of the DVSS the duration of operation was 80 min longer ($P < 0.001$), but hospital stay was 2 days shorter ($P < 0.001$). Blood loss was reduced by 170 ml ($P = 0.011$). However, the DVSS was associated with an increase in costs of US \$18 000 ($P < 0.001$).

Table 2 Meta-analysis results: Da Vinci Surgical System® *versus* open surgery

| Outcome | No. of studies | No. of patients | <i>I</i> ² (%) | Statistical method | Estimate of effect* |
|--|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|
| Hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer | | | | | |
| Hospital stay (days) | 4 ^{10,12-14} | 639 | 93 | MD (IV, REM) | -2.68 (-3.53, -1.84) |
| Blood loss (ml) | 4 ^{10,12-14} | 639 | 56 | MD (IV, REM) | -152.14 (-184.24, -120.04) |
| No. of lymph nodes resected | 4 ^{10,12-14} | 639 | 90 | MD (IV, REM) | 5.91 (0.13, 11.68) |
| No. of pelvic lymph nodes resected | 2 ^{10,14} | 403 | 94 | MD (IV, REM) | 4.92 (-3.02, 12.86) |
| No. of aortic lymph nodes resected | 2 ^{10,14} | 403 | 98 | MD (IV, REM) | 4.43 (-4.49, 13.15) |
| Complications (%) | 4 ^{10,12-14} | 639 | 37 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.22 (0.13, 0.39) |
| Transfusions (%) | 3 ^{10,13,14} | 483 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.25 (0.07, 0.81) |
| Need to convert to another type of surgery (%) | 2 ^{10,14} | 403 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 11.54 (1.40, 94.97) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 4 ^{10,12-14} | 639 | 95 | MD (IV, REM) | 89.25 (51.69, 126.81) |
| Radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer | | | | | |
| Hospital stay (days) | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 80 | MD (IV, REM) | -2.05 (-2.80, -1.29) |
| Blood loss (ml) | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 90 | MD (IV, REM) | -334.17 (-459.44, -208.91) |
| No. of lymph nodes resected | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 86 | MD (IV, REM) | 1.29 (-4.16, 6.73) |
| Transfusion required (%) | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.18 (0.07, 0.44) |
| Complications (%) | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.66 (0.36, 1.21) |
| Need to convert to another type of surgery (%) | 2 ^{19,20} | 110 | 0 | RD (M-H, FEM) | 0.00 (-0.05, 0.05) |
| Positive margins (%) | 2 ^{19,22} | 94 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.58 (0.14, 2.33) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 5 ^{18-20,22,23} | 336 | 94 | MD (IV, REM) | 31.39 (-10.33, 73.11) |
| Fallopian tube reanastomosis | | | | | |
| Hospital stay (days) | 2 ^{28,29} | 95 | 98 | MD (IV, REM) | -0.64 (-1.86, 0.58) |
| Complications (%) | 2 ^{28,29} | 95 | 3 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.41 (0.08, 2.06) |
| Time to return to work (days) | 2 ^{28,29} | 95 | 0 | MD (IV, REM) | -15.97 (-19.55, -12.38) |
| Pregnancies (%) | 2 ^{28,29} | 95 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.86 (0.37, 1.99) |
| Miscarriages (%) | 2 ^{28,29} | 82 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.37 (0.11, 1.20) |
| Ectopic pregnancies (%) | 2 ^{28,29} | 82 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 1.13 (0.30, 4.33) |
| Intrauterine pregnancies (%) | 2 ^{28,29} | 82 | 44 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 1.99 (0.74, 5.36) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 2 ^{28,29} | 95 | 0 | MD (IV, FEM) | 46.85 (34.66, 59.04) |

*Values in parentheses are 95 per cent confidence intervals. MD, mean difference; IV, inverse variance; REM, random-effects method; OR, odds ratio; M-H, Mantel-Haenszel; FEM, fixed-effects method; RD, risk difference.

Table 3 Meta-analysis of results: Da Vinci Surgical System® *versus* conventional laparoscopic surgery

| Outcome | No. of studies | No. of patients | <i>I</i> ² (%) | Statistical method | Estimate of effect* |
|--|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer | | | | | |
| Hospital stay (days) | 4 ^{10,12,13,15} | 431 | 45 | MD (IV, FEM) | -0.17 (-0.28, -0.06) |
| Blood loss (ml) | 4 ^{10,12,13,15} | 431 | 88 | MD (IV, REM) | -75.96 (-142.39, -9.53) |
| No. of lymph nodes resected | 4 ^{10,12,13,15} | 464 | 80 | MD (IV, REM) | 1.12 (-3.59, 5.83) |
| No. of pelvic lymph nodes resected | 2 ^{10,15} | 365 | 75 | MD (IV, REM) | 0.89 (-3.11, 4.90) |
| No. of aortic lymph nodes resected | 2 ^{10,15} | 365 | 97 | MD (IV, REM) | 2.32 (-4.24, 8.89) |
| Complications (%) | 3 ^{10,13,15} | 397 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.60 (0.31, 1.15) |
| Transfusions (%) | 3 ^{10,13,15} | 397 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.24 (0.09, 0.64) |
| Need to convert to another type of surgery (%) | 2 ^{10,15} | 365 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.43 (0.21, 0.85) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 4 ^{10,12,13,15} | 431 | 85 | MD (IV, REM) | -5.83 (-29.29, 17.63) |
| Radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer | | | | | |
| Hospital stay (days) | 3 ²⁰⁻²² | 150 | 51 | MD (IV, REM) | -0.52 (-1.24, 0.21) |
| Blood loss (ml) | 3 ²⁰⁻²² | 150 | 0 | MD (IV, FEM) | -63.52 (-100.49, -26.54) |
| No. of lymph nodes resected | 3 ²⁰⁻²² | 150 | 94 | MD (IV, REM) | 2.73 (-8.39, 13.85) |
| Need to convert to open surgery (%) | 3 ²⁰⁻²² | 116 | 0 | RD (M-H, FEM) | -0.02 (-0.09, 0.05) |
| Total complications (%) | 4 ^{17,20-22} | 165 | 11 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 1.07 (0.53, 2.15) |
| Recurrences (%) | 2 ^{20,21} | 101 | 0 | RD (M-H, FEM) | 0.00 (-0.06, 0.06) |
| Transfusion required (%) | 2 ^{20,22} | 107 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 2.46 (0.25, 24.36) |
| Positive margins (%) | 2 ^{21,22} | 92 | 0 | OR (M-H, FEM) | 0.84 (0.20, 3.42) |
| Mortality (%) | 2 ^{21,22} | 92 | 0 | RD (M-H, FEM) | 0.00 (-0.07, 0.07) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 4 ^{17,20-22} | 165 | 68 | MD (IV, REM) | -14.01 (-42.85, 14.82) |
| Myomectomy | | | | | |
| Blood loss (ml) | 2 ^{26,27} | 130 | 44 | MD (IV, FEM) | -72.36 (-133.22, -11.50) |
| Duration of surgery (min) | 2 ^{26,27} | 131 | 79 | MD (IV, REM) | 0.18 (-54.42, 54.79) |

*Values in parentheses are 95 per cent confidence intervals. MD, mean difference; IV, inverse variance; REM, random-effects method; OR, odds ratio; M-H, Mantel-Haenszel; FEM, fixed-effects method; RD, risk difference.

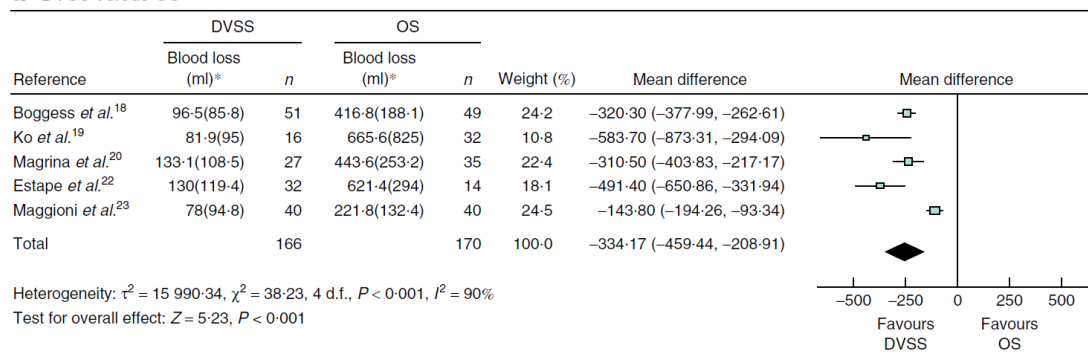
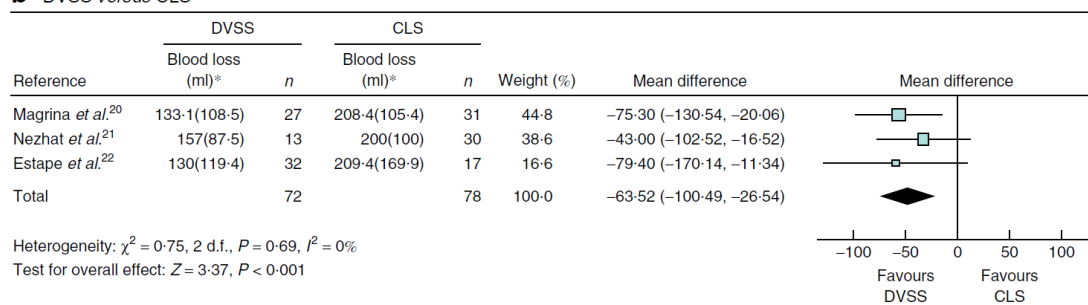
a DVSS versus OS**b** DVSS versus CLS

Fig. 5 Forest plots showing meta-analysis of blood loss associated with radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer: **a** robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) versus open surgery (OS) and **b** DVSS versus conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS). An inverse variance random-effects method was used in **a** and inverse variance fixed-effects method in **b**. *Values are mean(s.d.). Mean differences are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

Two studies^{26,27} compared the DVSS with CLS for this indication (Table 1). In both studies robotic surgery was associated with reduced blood loss: mean difference -72.36 (-133.22 to -11.50) ml (Fig. 7, Table 3). The results for duration of operation were conflicting. One study²⁶ reported that the DVSS procedure took 25 min less (not significant), whereas the other²⁷ found that it took 31 min longer ($P < 0.03$). Other variables showed no significant difference (Table 3).

Fallopian tube reanastomosis

Two studies^{28,29} compared a robotic procedure with OS (laparotomy or minilaparotomy) for fallopian tube reanastomosis (Table 1). The results for laparotomy and minilaparotomy are pooled here unless stated otherwise.

Use of the DVSS was associated with a significantly longer duration of operation, a shorter time to return to

work (16 days fewer) and less consumption of analgesics. No significant differences were seen in hospital stay, the proportion of patients with complications (Fig. 8), the pregnancy rate, and the proportion of miscarriages, ectopic and intrauterine pregnancies (Table 2). One study²⁸ reported blood loss to be similar between DVSS procedures and minilaparotomies. The same study reported that use of the DVSS was associated with a significant extra cost of US \$1446. The other (comparing robotic surgery and laparotomy)²⁹ indicated that the robot was associated with an overall increase in costs of US \$2000, plus an extra US \$300 for each newborn.

Sacrocolpopexy

One study³⁰ compared use of the DVSS and abdominal sacrocolpopexy (an open procedure) in the treatment of advanced vaginal vault prolapse. The robotic procedure

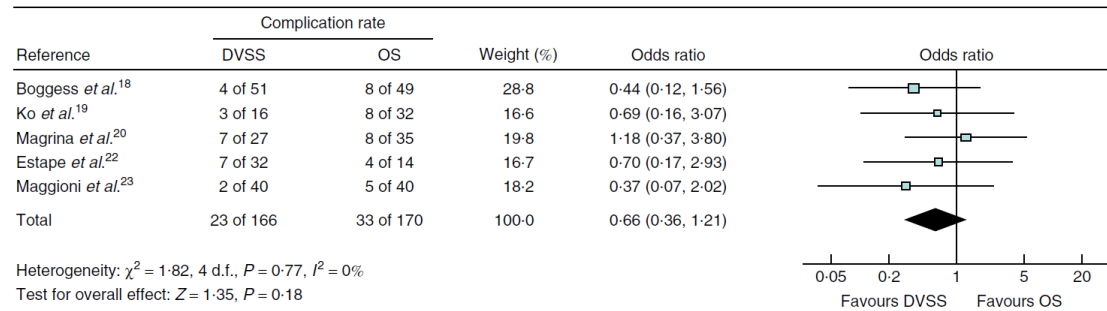
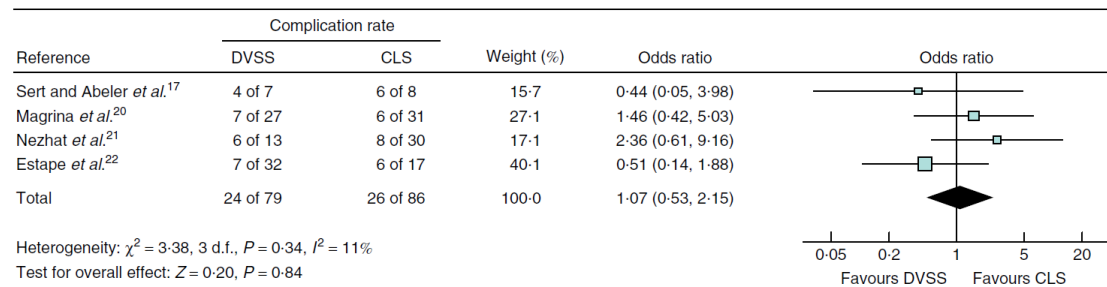
a DVSS versus OS**b** DVSS versus CLS

Fig. 6 Forest plots showing meta-analysis of complications associated with radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer: **a** robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) versus open surgery (OS) and **b** DVSS versus conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS). A Mantel–Haenszel fixed-effects method was used. Odds ratios are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

was associated with reduced blood loss during surgery (mean(s.d.) 103(93) versus 255(155) ml; $P < 0.001$) and a shorter hospital stay (1.3(0.8) versus 2.7(1.4) days; $P < 0.001$). The duration of surgery was longer with the robot (328(55) versus 225(61) min; $P < 0.001$). A small proportion of patients in the DVSS group

had postoperative fever, but none after conventional sacrocolpopexy (4 versus 0 per cent; $P < 0.04$).

Adnexectomy

One study³¹ compared the DVSS with CLS for adnexectomy in 176 patients with adnexal masses. The

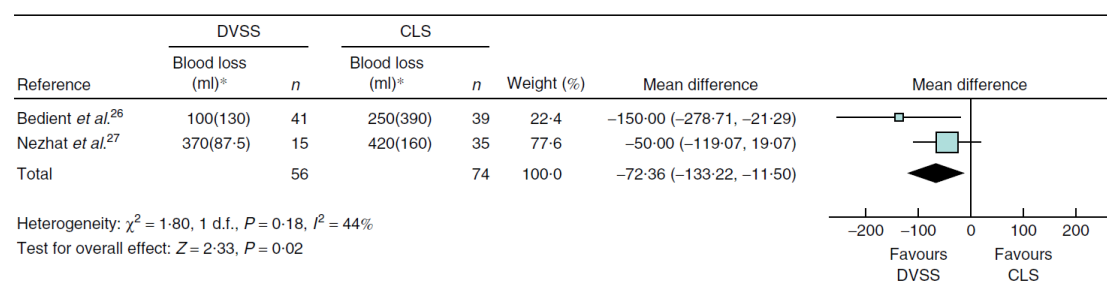


Fig. 7 Forest plot showing meta-analysis of blood loss associated with myomectomy: robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) versus conventional laparoscopic surgery (CLS). An inverse variance fixed-effects method was used. *Values are mean(s.d.). Mean differences are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

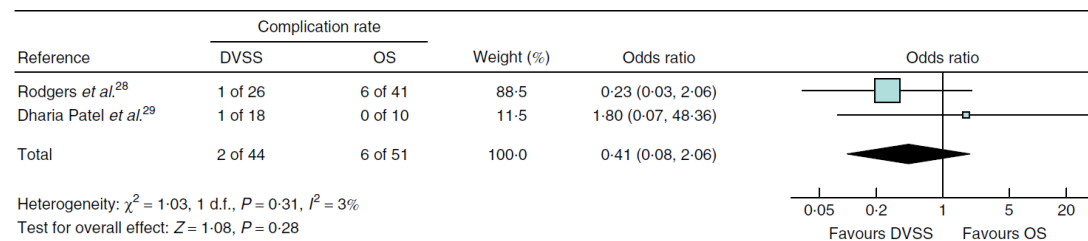


Fig. 8 Forest plot showing meta-analysis of complications associated with fallopian tube reanastomosis: robotic surgery using the Da Vinci Surgical System® (DVSS) *versus* open surgery (OS). A Mantel–Haenszel fixed-effects method was used. Odds ratios are shown with 95 per cent confidence intervals

only significant difference between the two procedures was in the duration of surgery, although this difference was a mere 12 min.

Discussion

The DVSS, being minimally invasive, achieves better short-term surgical results than OS, mainly expressed in reduced blood loss and a smaller risk of transfusion. Long-term results of hysterectomy have been reported incidentally. No differences were seen between the DVSS and OS with respect to the proportion of patients with complications, except that a robotic procedure was associated with fewer complications in hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer. Hospital stay was shorter with use of the DVSS for all indications. By and large, the duration of operation was much longer with the DVSS except in radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer. During hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer more lymph nodes were resected when the robot was used. No differences in lymph node resection were found in radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer. In fallopian tube reanastomosis, similar numbers of pregnancies, miscarriages, ectopic and intrauterine pregnancies were recorded.

No good cost–benefit assessment was found regarding use of the DVSS. Although the results obtained show that, compared with OS, the DVSS can provide patients with certain short-term benefits, no rigorous information was available on the extra cost of these benefits.

In hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer, radical hysterectomy for cervical cancer and hysterectomy for benign disease, use of the DVSS was also associated with some significant short-term benefits compared with CLS. Differences between robotic procedures and CLS were seen in blood loss and hospital stay, but these were not substantial (50–70 ml and 0.5 days respectively) and

certainly of little importance clinically. The DVSS and CLS were also equivalent in terms of safety. Operating times varied greatly, but were comparable overall between the two groups. In hysterectomy for the staging of endometrial cancer the differences in bleeding between robotic procedures and CLS was more pronounced, conversions were fewer with the robot and complication rates were comparable.

Although economic assessments are lacking, robotic surgery might be expected to be associated with higher costs. Acquisition, use and maintenance costs for the system are all high. Cost-effectiveness data are needed in settings where the DVSS was associated with reduced blood loss. From a clinical point of view, the benefit of robotic surgery is limited. Therefore, if the costs needed to achieve this are large, use of the DVSS may not be justifiable. Moreover, published studies mostly reported perioperative and short-term postoperative results. Very little information was provided with respect to comparison of long-term results of robotic procedures *versus* OS or CLS in different indications. Longer-term studies are needed to weigh the benefits and drawbacks of the DVSS.

Bias is a problem to consider given the design of the studies examined. None of the studies was blinded. Nineteen of 22 studies had a historical control group. Many were of retrospective design, and the selection of patients was not discussed. The use of historical controls is hampered by the fact that patient care, other than the treatments under examination, may have changed over time, influencing the final results obtained. None of the studies discussed postoperative care or discharge criteria. Differences in patient care may have been responsible for observed differences in hospital stay, blood loss and transfusions. A more rigorous study design is needed to control these sources of bias. In addition, a high degree of heterogeneity was seen for many variables examined in the

meta-analysis, which could not by and large be explained by methodological differences.

When interpreting the results it should also be remembered that use of the DVSS is associated with a period of learning. The values of certain variables, such as the duration of surgery, vary over time as the number of times a procedure is performed increases and experience is gained. Results from the first few procedures ever performed by a surgical team are likely to be different from those undertaken when the team has gained experience. In addition, teams that undertake research and publish results will have more experience or greater skill, and their results may be better than those of others. Finally, publication bias may push towards studies reporting significant differences, which normally leads to an overestimation of the differences between techniques.

Another limitation of the present review is that only controlled studies were included. The exclusion of case series leads to loss of information that might have allowed analysis of the DVSS learning curve. The exclusion of such studies also means that information regarding the safety of the technique may not have been included. Some possible advantages of the DVSS, such as better ergonomics and improvement of the surgeon's skills in general, were not assessed.

The evidence reviewed shows that robotic surgery offers certain advantages with respect to short-term outcomes compared to the classical surgical techniques. Robotic surgery with the DVSS is still evolving and is unlikely to replace OS or even CLS in gynaecology in the near future. Further studies are needed in different indications to weigh the benefits including clinical outcomes, long-term results, drawbacks and costs.

Acknowledgements

This report was supported financially with public funds. It is based on a Health Technology Assessment report financed by the Spanish Ministry of Health. The document was prepared within the collaborative framework of the Quality Plan for the National Health System produced by the Ministry of Health and Social Policy, under an agreement between the Carlos III Institute of Health, the Ministry of Science and Innovation, and the Laín Entralgo Agency. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Mendivil A, Holloway RW, Boggess JF. Emergence of robotic assisted surgery in gynecologic oncology: American perspective. *Gynecol Oncol* 2009; **114**(Suppl): S24–S31.
- Camberlin C, Senn A, Leys M, De Laet C. *Robot-assisted Surgery: Health Technology Assessment. Health Services Research (HSR)*. KCE reports 104C (D/2009/10-273/09). Belgian Health Care Knowledge Centre: Brussels, 2009.
- Maeso Martínez S, Reza Goyanes M, Blasco Amaro JA, Guerra Rodríguez M. *Effectiveness of the Surgery Realized by Means of Da Vinci Surgical System*. UETS 2007/4. Agencia Laín Entralgo: Madrid, 2009.
- Advincula AP, Reynolds RK. The use of robot-assisted laparoscopic hysterectomy in the patient with a scarred or obliterated anterior cul-de-sac. *JSLs* 2005; **9**: 287–291.
- Toohar R, Pham C. *The da Vinci Surgical Robotics System: Technology Overview ASERNIP-S Report No. 45*. ASERNIP-S: Adelaide, 2004.
- Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ. Users' guides to the medical literature. II. How to use an article about therapy or prevention. A. Are the results of the study valid? Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. *JAMA* 1993; **270**: 2598–2601.
- Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ. Users' guides to the medical literature. II. How to use an article about therapy or prevention. B. What were the results and will they help me in caring for my patients? Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. *JAMA* 1994; **271**: 59–63.
- Higgins JPT, Green S. *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions. Version 5.0.1* [updated September 2008]. The Cochrane Collaboration. John Wiley & Sons: Chichester, 2008.
- Hozo SP, Djulbegovic B, Hozo I. Estimating the mean and variance from the median, range, and the size of a sample. *BMC Med Res Methodol* 2005; **5**: 13.
- Boggess JF, Gehrig PA, Cantrell L, Shafer A, Ridgway M, Skinner EN *et al.* A comparative study of 3 surgical methods for hysterectomy with staging for endometrial cancer: robotic assistance, laparoscopy, laparotomy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2008; **199**: 360–369.
- Gehrig PA, Cantrell LA, Shafer A, Abaid LN, Mendivil A, Boggess JF. What is the optimal minimally invasive surgical procedure for endometrial cancer staging in the obese and morbidly obese woman? *Gynecol Oncol* 2008; **111**: 41–45.
- Veljovich DS, Paley PJ, Drescher CW, Everett EN, Shah C, Peters WA III. Robotic surgery in gynecologic oncology: program initiation and outcomes after the first year with comparison with laparotomy for endometrial cancer staging. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2008; **198**: 679.
- Bell MC, Torgerson J, Seshadri-Kreaden U, Suttle AW, Hunt S. Comparison of outcomes and cost for endometrial cancer staging via traditional laparotomy, standard laparoscopy and robotic techniques. *Gynecol Oncol* 2008; **111**: 407–411.
- DeNardis SA, Holloway RW, Bigsby GE IV, Pikaart DP, Ahmad S, Finkler NJ. Robotically assisted laparoscopic hysterectomy *versus* total abdominal hysterectomy and lymphadenectomy for endometrial cancer. *Gynecol Oncol* 2008; **111**: 412–417.

- 15 Seamon LG, Cohn DE, Henretta MS, Kim KH, Carlson MJ, Phillips GS *et al.* Minimally invasive comprehensive surgical staging for endometrial cancer: robotics or laparoscopy? *Gynecol Oncol* 2009; **113**: 36–41.
- 16 Seamon LG, Bryant SA, Rheume PS, Kimball KJ, Huh WK, Fowler JM *et al.* Comprehensive surgical staging for endometrial cancer in obese patients: comparing robotics and laparotomy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2009; **114**: 16–21.
- 17 Sert B, Abeler V. Robotic radical hysterectomy in early-stage cervical carcinoma patients, comparing results with total laparoscopic radical hysterectomy cases. The future is now? *Int J Med Robot* 2007; **3**: 224–228.
- 18 Boggess JF, Gehrig PA, Cantrell L, Shafer A, Ridgway M, Skinner EN *et al.* A case control study of robot-assisted type III radical hysterectomy with pelvic lymph node dissection compared with open radical hysterectomy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2008; **199**: 357.e1–357.e7.
- 19 Ko EM, Muto MG, Berkowitz RS, Feltmate CM. Robotic *versus* open radical hysterectomy: a comparative study at a single institution. *Gynecol Oncol* 2008; **111**: 425–430.
- 20 Magrina JF, Kho RM, Weaver AL, Montero RP, Magtibay PM. Robotic radical hysterectomy: comparison with laparoscopy and laparotomy. *Gynecol Oncol* 2008; **109**: 86–91.
- 21 Nezhat FR, Datta MS, Liu C, Chuang L, Zakashansky K. Robotic radical hysterectomy *versus* total laparoscopic radical hysterectomy with pelvic lymphadenectomy for treatment of early cervical cancer. *J SLS* 2008; **12**: 227–237.
- 22 Estape R, Lambrou N, Diaz R, Estape E, Dunkin N, Rivera A. A case matched analysis of robotic radical hysterectomy with lymphadenectomy compared with laparoscopy and laparotomy. *Gynecol Oncol* 2009; **113**: 357–361.
- 23 Maggioni A, Minig L, Zanagnolo V, Peiretti M, Sanguineti F, Boccione L *et al.* Robotic approach for cervical cancer: comparison with laparotomy: a case control study. *Gynecol Oncol* 2009; **115**: 60–64.
- 24 Payne TN, Dauterive FR. A comparison of total laparoscopic hysterectomy to robotically assisted hysterectomy: surgical outcomes in a community practice. *J Minim Invasive Gynecol* 2008; **15**: 286–291.
- 25 Advincula AP, Xu X, Goudeau S IV, Ransom SB. Robot-assisted laparoscopic myomectomy *versus* abdominal myomectomy: a comparison of short-term surgical outcomes and immediate costs. *J Minim Invasive Gynecol* 2007; **14**: 698–705.
- 26 Bedient CE, Magrina JF, Noble BN, Kho RM. Comparison of robotic and laparoscopic myomectomy. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2009; **201**: 566.e1–566.e5.
- 27 Nezhat C, Lavie O, Hsu S, Watson J, Barnett O, Lemmyre M. Robotic-assisted laparoscopic myomectomy compared with standard laparoscopic myomectomy – a retrospective matched control study. *Fertil Steril* 2009; **91**: 556–559.
- 28 Rodgers AK, Goldberg JM, Hammel JP, Falcone T. Tubal anastomosis by robotic compared with outpatient minilaparotomy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2007; **109**: 1375–1380.
- 29 Dharia Patel SP, Steinkampf MP, Whitten SJ, Malizia BA. Robotic tubal anastomosis: surgical technique and cost effectiveness. *Fertil Steril* 2008; **90**: 1175–1179.
- 30 Geller EJ, Siddiqui NY, Wu JM, Visco AG. Short-term outcomes of robotic sacrocolpopexy compared with abdominal sacrocolpopexy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2008; **112**: 1201–1206.
- 31 Magrina JF, Espada M, Munoz R, Noble BN, Kho RM. Robotic adnexectomy compared with laparoscopy for adnexal mass. *Obstet Gynecol* 2009; **114**: 581–584.

**6. ARTÍCULO 3: Esophageal Doppler monitoring during colorectal
resection offers cost-effective improvement of hemodynamic
control**

La monitorización con ecodopler transesofágico durante la resección colorectal produce una mejora del coste-efectividad del control hemodinámico.

(Value in Health 2011: 818-826)

Objetivo: El control hemodinámico puede mejorar el resultado de la cirugía. La monitorización mediante ecodopler transesofágico mide el flujo de sangre mediante ondas de ultrasonido. Este trabajo evalúa el costo-efectividad de este procedimiento durante la resección colorectal.

Métodos: Se realizaron metaanálisis de los ensayos clínicos aleatorizados de monitorización con ecodopler transesofágico utilizado en la resección colorrectal para ayudar a determinar su rentabilidad. Un modelo de decisión analítica se utiliza para comparar el costo-efectividad de las estrategias que involucran la evaluación clínica convencional con o sin la medición de la presión venosa central, con o sin monitorización con ecodopler transesofágico. La mortalidad evitada y las complicaciones mayores evitadas fueron utilizadas como medidas de efectividad clínica.

Resultados: En el metaanálisis comparando la evaluación clínica convencional más el control de la presión venosa central, con o sin monitorización Doppler esofágico, se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas en las complicaciones totales y las complicaciones mayores que favorecen el uso de Doppler. No se observaron diferencias en la mortalidad. El uso de la monitorización Doppler esofágico se asoció con menores costos, debido principalmente a un menor número de complicaciones, estancias hospitalarias más cortas y tiempos quirúrgicos más cortos.

Conclusiones: Aunque la información sobre la eficacia clínica de la monitorización Doppler esofágico en la resección colorrectal es limitada, estrategias que incluyen esta forma de monitoreo del flujo sanguíneo pueden ser rentables. Se deben efectuar además las comparaciones de la monitorización Doppler frente a otros sistemas de monitorización hemodinámica.

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

SciVerse ScienceDirect

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jval

Esophageal Doppler Monitoring during Colorectal Resection Offers Cost-Effective Improvement of Hemodynamic Control

Sergio Maeso, MD, MPH^{1,*}, Daniel Callejo, MSc¹, Rodolfo Hernández, MSc², Juan A. Blasco, MD, MPH¹, Elena Andradás, MD, MPH¹

¹Health Technology Assessment Unit, Agencia Lain Entralgo, Madrid, Spain; ²Health Economic Research Unit, University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen, United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

Objectives: Hemodynamic control can improve the outcome of surgery. Esophageal Doppler monitoring measures blood flow by ultrasound waves. This work investigates the cost-effectiveness of this procedure during colorectal resection. **Methods:** Meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials of esophageal Doppler monitoring used in colorectal resection were conducted to help determine its cost-effectiveness. An analytical decision model was used to compare the cost-effectiveness of strategies involving conventional clinical assessment with or without the measurement of central venous pressure, with or without esophageal Doppler monitoring. Avoided mortality and avoided major complications were used as measures of clinical effectiveness. **Results:** In the meta-analyses comparing conventional clinical assessment plus central venous pressure monitoring with or without esophageal Doppler monitoring, statistically significant differ-

ences in total and major complications favoring the use of Doppler were found. No differences were seen in mortality. The use of esophageal Doppler monitoring was associated with lower costs, mainly due to fewer complications, shorter hospital stays and shorter surgery times. **Conclusions:** Although the information regarding the clinical effectiveness of esophageal Doppler monitoring in colorectal resection is limited, strategies including this form of blood flow monitoring may be cost-effective. Further comparisons of Doppler monitoring against other hemodynamic monitoring systems should be undertaken.

Keywords: cardiac imaging techniques, colorectal surgery, cost-effectiveness, Doppler ultrasonography.

Copyright © 2011, International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research (ISPOR). Published by Elsevier Inc.

Introduction

The optimization of cardiac output and hemodynamic function has long been considered a key element for improving the care of critically ill and high risk surgery patients. Optimal cardiac output after surgery is associated with better tissue perfusion, resulting in less tissue ischemia, less injury following reperfusion, lower infection rates, better healing, and reduced cardiac strain [1].

Intraoperative hypoperfusion of the gut has been identified in over 60% of patients undergoing major surgery, a problem associated with increased morbidity and a longer hospital stay [2]. The consensus is that tissue hypoperfusion and the activation of systemic inflammation should be avoided [3]. Esophageal Doppler monitoring (EDM) provides an instantaneous representation of beat-to-beat hemodynamic function; it therefore allows for the rapid correction of hypovolemia and oxygen debt [4]. Accurate guidance provided by EDM regarding the need for intraoperative fluid could therefore reduce the risk of tissue injury [3].

A number of minimally invasive hemodynamic monitoring options, including EDM, have been developed to avoid the need for pulmonary arterial catheterization (PAC). The latter technique has been gradually abandoned in many countries owing to the lack of evidence of it providing any benefit to patients, the risks its use

entails, and its associated costs [5,6]. Esophageal Doppler monitoring measures blood flow velocity in the descending thoracic aorta using a flexible ultrasonic probe inserted via the mouth or nose into the patient's esophagus. Briefly, the measurement of the blood flow velocity combined with an estimation of the cross-sectional area of the aorta (derived from a nomogram according to the age, height and weight of the patient, or by direct calculation via ultrasonographic imaging) allows continuous monitoring of the cardiac output and hemodynamic status. In addition, if values such as the central venous pressure (CVP) and blood pressure are known, other variables such as the systemic vascular resistance can be estimated. The training required to perform EDM is minimal and the technique has a good safety profile. The probe, however, is generally not well tolerated by conscious patients and its use is typically restricted to patients under sedation or anesthesia – which is usually the case in surgery and critical care. Further details on the use and contraindications of EDM are described in detail elsewhere [7,8]. Other alternatives to PAC include transesophageal echocardiography (TEE), systems based on the analysis of the pulse wave, and dilution methods. However, owing to the lack of data, these approaches are not considered in the present work.

The conventional clinical assessment (CCA) of surgical patients involves the non-invasive assessment of numerous vari-

* Address correspondence to: Sergio Maeso, Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias, Agencia Lain Entralgo C/ Gran Vía, 27, Madrid, 28013 Spain.

E-mail: smaemar@hotmail.com.

1098-3015/\$36.00 – see front matter Copyright © 2011, International Society for Pharmacoeconomics and Outcomes Research (ISPOR).

Published by Elsevier Inc.

doi:10.1016/j.jval.2011.02.1176

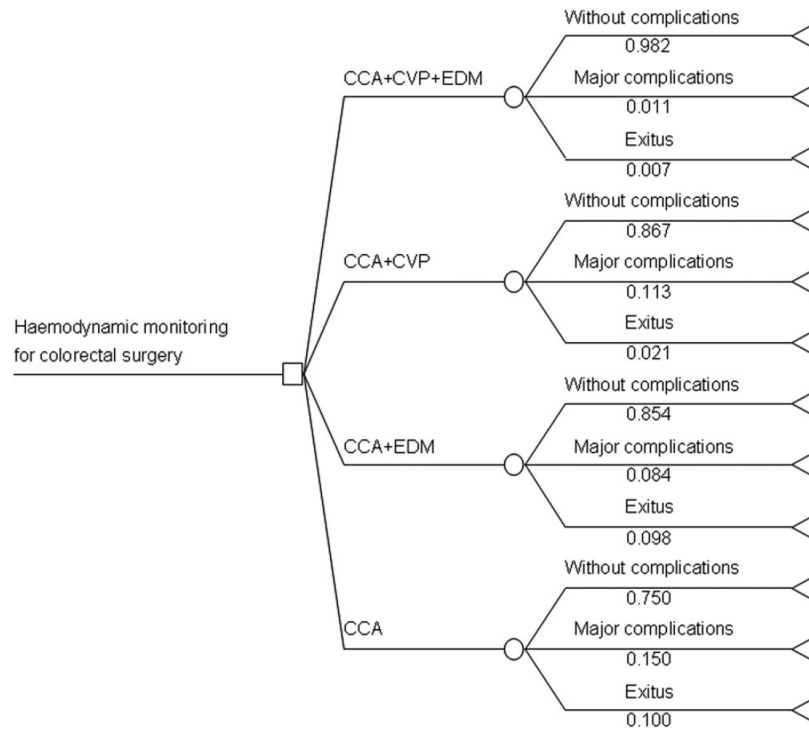


Fig. 1 – Economic decision model tree for hemodynamic function monitoring with intraoperative esophageal Doppler monitoring. CCA, conventional clinical assessment; CVP, central venous pressure; EDM, esophageal Doppler monitoring.

50%). Review Manager version 5.0 software (RevMan, The Cochrane Collaboration, The Nordic Cochrane Centre, Copenhagen, Denmark) was used for all calculations.

General characteristics of the economic model used to assess cost-effectiveness

Conventional clinical assessment involved the monitoring of cardiac output via the measurement of clinical variables such as the heart rate, blood pressure and urine volume. Central venous pressure was measured via a central venous catheter, finally EDM involved cardiac output monitoring with an esophageal ultrasound system and the calculation of blood flow through the descending aortic artery.

An analytical decision model with four strategies (CCA + CVP + EDM versus CCA + CVP versus CCA + EDM versus CCA) was constructed (Fig. 1) to compare the cost-effectiveness of hemodynamic function optimization. These strategies were chosen because they are some of the most commonly used in clinical settings and RCTs.

The decision model considered costs and outcomes until hospital discharge; it was assumed that cardiac output control systems and fluid administration during surgery would not influence outcomes following discharge. This assumption was also made in all the RCTs. Long-term results were estimated as part of a sensitivity analysis.

Avoided mortality, or avoided complications plus avoided mortality, was used as alternative clinical effectiveness measures.

Clinical effectiveness data

Estimates for the effectiveness of the CCA + CVP strategy were obtained from the combined information in the studies reporting data on the risk of death (three studies, $N = 144$) [3,4,18] and those reporting on major complications (two studies, $N = 80$) [3,4]. These values were used for the base-case analysis. Probability data for the CCA + CVP + EDM arm were calculated as the product of the probabilities for CCA + CVP and the relative risk associated with the corresponding alternatives. Finally, for the CCA alone strategy, data were obtained from Dodd [12]. In the absence of data for the RRs for CCA versus CCA + EDM, data from other high-risk surgeries were used (Table 2) [16,17]. The probability data for CCA + EDM were estimated using the same methods as described for CCA + CVP + EDM.

The length of time spent in critical care was based on the data of Conway (Table 2) [4]. The total hospital stay for each group was obtained from Wakeling [18], who reported a statistically significant difference in hospital stay (1.1 days fewer) for patients who underwent EDM. It was assumed that patients who underwent CCA + CVP had the same length of hospital stay as those who were subjected to CCA alone. The duration of surgery was calculated as the weighted average of data presented by Noblett [3] and Conway [4] (Table 2).

Cost data

The cost of the EDM probes (provided by the manufacturers; Table 2) was deemed to include the cost of the disposable probe and the required monitoring equipment. Equipment costs for each usage

Table 2 – Data used in base case and sensitivity analyses.

| Base case | | | | Deterministic sensitivity analysis | | Probabilistic sensitivity analysis | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|--------|-------|------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------------|-------|--------|-------|----|
| | | Source | Value | Min. | Max. | Distrib. | Mean | Min. | Max. | SD |
| Relative risks* | | | | | | | | | | |
| CCA + CVP vs. CCA + CVP + EDM (1) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | Conway ⁴ , Noblett ³ , Wakeling ¹⁸ | 0.33 | 0.05 | 2.07 | Lognormal | 0.526 | 0.014 | 11.757 | 0.627 | |
| Major complications | Conway ⁴ , Noblett ³ | 0.10 | 0.01 | 0.76 | Lognormal | 0.186 | 0.002 | 4.973 | 0.283 | |
| CCA vs. CCA + EDM (2) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | Venn ¹⁷ , Sinclair ¹⁶ | 0.98 | 0.26 | 3.72 | Lognormal | 1.248 | 0.073 | 12.929 | 0.944 | |
| Major complications | Venn ¹⁷ | 0.48 | 0.12 | 0.88 | Lognormal | 0.517 | 0.113 | 2.228 | 0.204 | |
| Probabilities | | | | | | | | | | |
| CCA + CVP (3) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | Conway ⁴ , Noblett ³ , Wakeling ¹⁸ | 0.021 | — | — | Beta | 0.021 | 0.001 | 0.096 | 0.012 | |
| Major complications | Conway ⁴ , Noblett ³ | 0.113 | — | — | Beta | 0.112 | 0.008 | 0.242 | 0.031 | |
| CCA + CVP + EDM | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | (1)* (3) | 0.007 | — | — | — | 0.010 | 0.000 | 0.308 | 0.015 | |
| Major complications | (1)* (3) | 0.011 | — | — | — | 0.020 | 0.000 | 0.407 | 0.028 | |
| CCA (4) | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | Dodd ¹² | 0.100 | 0.05 | — | Beta | 0.098 | 0.001 | 0.356 | 0.058 | |
| Major complications | Dodd ¹² | 0.150 | 0.10 | — | Beta | 0.146 | 0.004 | 0.512 | 0.067 | |
| CCA + EDM | | | | | | | | | | |
| Mortality | (2)* (4) | 0.098 | — | — | — | 0.089 | 0.000 | 0.661 | 0.081 | |
| Major complications | (2)* (4) | 0.048 | — | — | — | 0.059 | 0.001 | 0.377 | 0.040 | |

| Base case | | | | Deterministic sensitivity analysis | | Probabilistic sensitivity analysis | | | | | |
|-------------------|--|--------|-------|------------------------------------|--------|------------------------------------|----------|--------|----------|--------|----|
| | | Source | Value | Units | Min. | Max. | Distrib. | Mean | Min. | Max. | SD |
| Surgery time | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CCA + CVP + EDM | Noblett ³ , Conway ⁴ | 142.8 | Min | — | 158.3 | Gamma | 145 | 26 | 382 | 45 | |
| CCA + CVP | Noblett ³ , Conway ⁴ | 158.3 | Min | — | — | Gamma | 156 | 20 | 492 | 57 | |
| CCA + EDM | Noblett ³ , Conway ⁴ | 142.8 | Min | — | 158.3 | Gamma | 145 | 26 | 382 | 45 | |
| CCA | Noblett ³ , Conway ⁴ | 158.3 | Min | — | — | Gamma | 156 | 20 | 492 | 57 | |
| Hospital stay | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CCA + CVP + EDM | Wakeling ¹⁸ | 12.0 | Days | — | 13.1 | Gamma | 12.03 | 0.58 | 52.31 | 6.05 | |
| CCA + CVP | Wakeling ¹⁸ | 13.1 | Days | — | — | Gamma | 13.04 | 0.79 | 52.82 | 6.57 | |
| CCA + EDM | Wakeling ¹⁸ | 12.0 | Days | — | 13.1 | Gamma | 12.03 | 0.58 | 52.31 | 6.05 | |
| CCA | Wakeling ¹⁸ | 13.1 | Days | — | — | Gamma | 13.04 | 0.79 | 52.82 | 6.57 | |
| HDU stay | | | | | | | | | | | |
| CCA + CVP + EDM | Conway ⁴ | 3.0 | Days | — | — | Gamma | 2.99 | 0.14 | 11.77 | 1.49 | |
| CCA + CVP | Conway ⁴ | 3.0 | Days | — | — | Gamma | 3.08 | 0.12 | 12.60 | 1.52 | |
| CCA + EDM | Conway ⁴ | 3.0 | Days | — | — | Gamma | 2.99 | 0.14 | 11.77 | 1.49 | |
| CCA | Dodd ¹² | 2.0 | Days | — | 3.0 | Gamma | 2.00 | 0.06 | 7.90 | 1.01 | |
| Cost | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Operating theater | Finance department | 16.47 | E/min | 5.75 | — | Gamma | 16.50 | 0.68 | 59.60 | 8.24 | |
| Hospital stay | Finance department | 493 | E/day | 296 | — | Gamma | 491.42 | 22.49 | 1,901.14 | 244.36 | |
| HDU stay | Finance department | 1,417 | E/day | 855 | — | Gamma | 1,405.20 | 101.55 | 5191.02 | 701.73 | |
| EDM | Provider | 201.25 | E | 188.88 | 299.91 | Gamma | 200.48 | 12.55 | 805.20 | 101.08 | |
| CVP | HULP | 44.25 | E | 12 | 76.50 | Gamma | 44.61 | 1.36 | 198.28 | 22.57 | |

CCA, conventional clinical assessment; CVP, central venous pressure; E, Euros; EDM, esophageal Doppler monitoring, HDU; high-dependence unit; min, minute; RR, relative risk; SD, standard deviation; HULP, La Paz University Hospital.

* Deterministic analysis includes 95% CI for relative risk.

of the system were calculated. The calculations assumed that the equipment would last 5 years and would be used 125 times per year; other utilization rates were tested in sensitivity analyses. Capital costs of the EDM were converted to an equivalent annual

cost [21,22] applying a 3% [23,24] inflation increase to adjust for consecutive years of usage.

Central venous catheter costs were provided by the anesthesiology service of the La Paz University Hospital, which confirmed

the institution's equal use of two kinds of catheter costing €12 Euros and €76.5 Euros, respectively (many types of differently priced catheters are in fact available) (Table 2).

Operating theater time was considered as a cost input. Thus, staff time associated with inserting the probe and taking the EDM readings was included within the total surgery time.

Resource use data (surgery time, hospital stay and HDU stay) were obtained from published sources [3,4,12,18]. The unit costs of surgical theater use, hospital stay, and HDU stay were obtained from the Salud Madrid accounting system (Consejería de Salud de la Comunidad de Madrid, 2007) (Table 2).

Costs were adjusted to 2007 prices, when appropriate, using the Spanish consumer price index. The costs associated with patients who died were considered equivalent to those for patients with complications because the RCTs examined recorded HDU stays for patients who eventually died [3,4].

Cost-effectiveness analysis

The costs used in the present analysis are presented in 2007 Euros. Avoided mortality and avoided complications plus avoided mortality were used as alternative effectiveness measures. The discounting of future costs and benefits was not required because the time horizon of the analysis was V1 year (indeed, only until hospital discharge) [21]. Those strategies of lower effectiveness and higher cost were considered as dominated; incremental cost-effectiveness ratios (ICERs) were not calculated in these cases.

Sensitivity analysis

One way deterministic sensitivity analyses were performed to understand the individual impact of the uncertain values for some variables, and a probabilistic analysis performed to study the joint impact of all variables expressed as probability distributions.

The cost variables were modified using published values (Table 2) [25,26]. The distributions were selected following Briggs [27,28], depending on the variable type (e.g., beta distribution for probabilities, lognormal for RR, and gamma for time and cost variables). The probabilistic analysis involved a Monte-Carlo simulation with 10,000 iterations. The results of this analysis are presented as cost-effectiveness acceptability curves. Central to the assessment of cost-effectiveness is the value that society would place on gaining an additional unit of effectiveness. Therefore, by knowing a particular "willingness to pay" value on the horizontal axis, the probability of its being cost-effective can be obtained from the vertical axis.

The net monetary benefit of each alternative to conventional assessment was determined [27]. As part of the sensitivity analysis, the costs generated by patients and the quality of the rest of their lives following CR were estimated. It was assumed that patients discharged alive would generate the same costs and have the same quality-adjusted life year (QALY) gained, as described by de Verteuil et al. [29]. The costs of the latter study were converted into Euros using purchasing power parity values for Spain (<http://www.who.int/choice/costs/ppp/en/> [Accessed 26 October 2010]).

Results

Synthesis of results on clinical effectiveness

In the meta-analyses comparing CCA + CVP + EDM versus CCA + CVP, statistically significant differences were found in the total number of complications (RR = 0.61; 95% CI, 0.45–0.82) and major complications (RR = 0.08; 95% CI, 0.01–0.62), favoring the + EDM alternative (1.6 and 12.5 times lower, respectively). No significant difference was seen between the groups in terms of mortality

(RR = 0.33; 95% CI, 0.05–2.07). Figure 2 shows the results of the meta-analysis.

Cost-effectiveness analysis

CCA + CVP + EDM dominated over all the other alternatives, being associated with lower mortality and fewer complications as well as lower costs (Table 3). The survival rate was 99% whereas the proportion of individuals who suffered no major complication was 98%. The mean cost per patient was €8579. The CCA + CVP strategy was associated with a survival rate of 98%, the proportion of individuals with no major complications was 87%, and the mean cost per patient was €9490. The RRs for mortality and major complications for the CCA + CVP + EDM strategy compared with the CCA + CVP strategy were 0.33 (95% CI, 0.05–2.07) and 0.08 (95% CI, 0.01–0.62) respectively. In addition, for the CCA + CVP + EDM strategy (compared with the CCA + CVP strategy), the number needed to treat (NNT) associated with an avoided major complication was 9 patients, and the NNT associated with an avoided death was 72 patients (statistical significance not reached). The associated financial saving associated with CCA + CVP + EDM over the CCA + CVP strategy was calculated at €911 per patient treated.

Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis was used to examine the cost-effectiveness results recorded. In one-way sensitivity analysis, the results were only sensitive to the relative risk of mortality. Because the difference between the overall mortality results for the CCA + CVP + EDM and CCA + CVP strategies did not reach statistical significance, the CCA + CVP + EDM strategy does not appear to always be the best option.

When mortality was regarded as being the same for the two strategies (RR of mortality equal 1) and the RR for major complications was taken as the top value of the confidence interval (0.76), the CCA + CVP + EDM strategy allowed a saving of €667 per patient compared to the CCA + CVP strategy.

The results were also sensitive to differences in the assumed length of hospital stay because this is a major determinant of cost. When there was no difference in hospital stay between the CCA + CVP + EDM and the CCA + CVP strategies, the cost of the EDM-based alternative increased to €9121 Euros and the saving per patient decreased to €369.

Figure 3 reveals that CCA and CCA + EDM are unlikely to be cost-effective unless willingness to pay is close to zero. Of the remaining alternatives, CCA + CVP + EDM is more likely than CCA + CVP to be cost-effective over a wide range of willingness to pay, but the difference in probabilities is modest at 0.2 to 0.25. The probability of CCA + CVP + EDM being cost-effective ranges from 0.4 rising to no more than 0.6 at €50,000 per death avoided, the greatest willingness to pay value that was considered.

Figure 4 shows the net monetary benefit of CCA + CVP + EDM, CCA + CVP and CCA + EDM over CCA for a willingness to pay for a death avoided of between €0 and €50,000. The CCA + CVP + EDM alternative is associated with the greatest mean net monetary benefit whatever the willingness to pay is. However, it should be noted that these results also reveal the 50% CCA + CVP + EDM credibility intervals overlap with the mean values of the other alternatives.

Table 4 shows that, in the long-term strategies, and considering QALYs and care costs, EDM dominates non-EDM strategies. The incremental cost-effectiveness ratio of CCA + CVP + EDM over CCA + EDM is €118.65 per QALY.

Discussion

In the present analyses, based on the results of four studies with a total of 343 patients, and comparing all possible monitoring combinations, statistically significant differences were found in terms

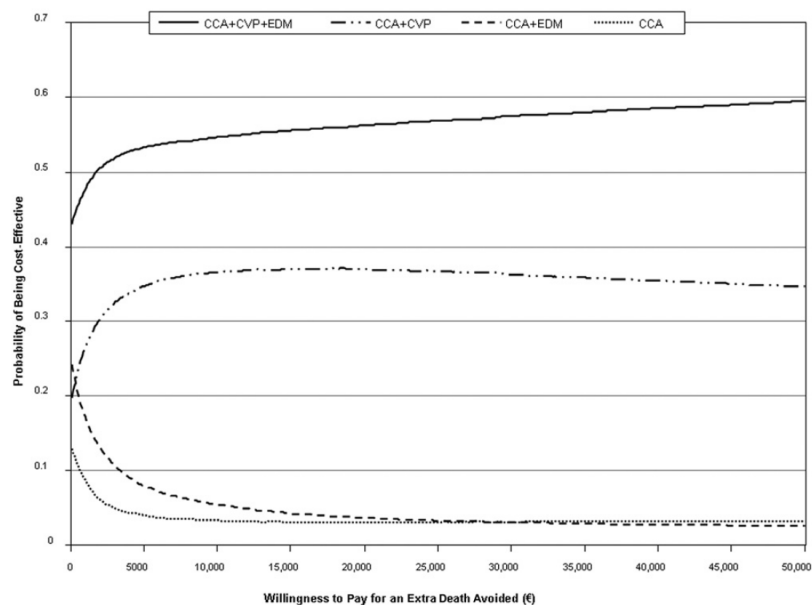


Fig. 3 – Acceptability curves showing the likelihood of each strategy being cost-effective at different levels of willingness to pay for a death avoided (in Euros). CCA, conventional clinical assessment; CVP, central venous pressure; EDM, esophageal Doppler monitoring.

be appreciated in terms of post-discharge long-term outcomes. The hospital perspective is a good proxy for an overall health care system perspective — the complications described in RCTs, such as pneumonia, surgical site complications or arrhythmias are dealt with during the hospital stay and require no primary care visits following discharge.

The robustness of the present analysis is at its greatest for the comparison between CCA + CVP + EDM and CCA + CVP because there have been more trials involving these alternatives; this allowed standard meta-analysis methods to be used. The Mantel-Hansel method was chosen since it is recommended for testing differences in proportions when events are relatively uncommon

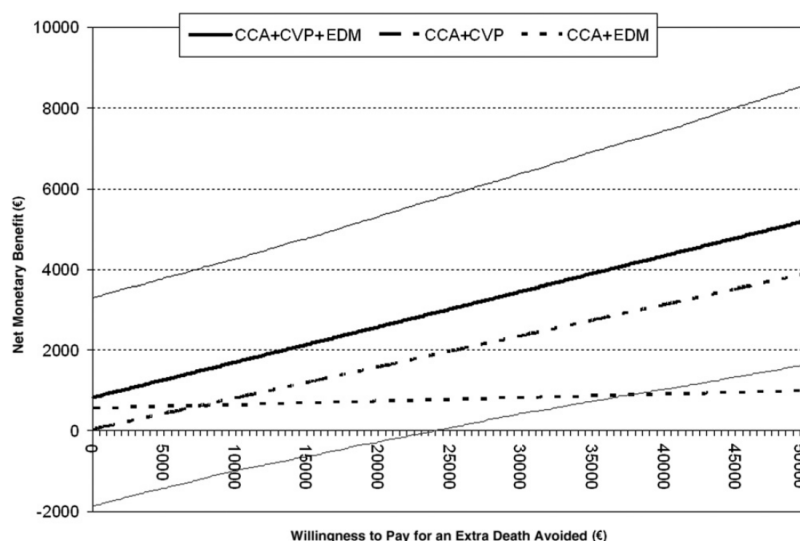


Fig. 4 – Net monetary benefits of each strategy comparing with conventional clinical assessment at different levels of willingness to pay for a death avoided (in Euros). CCA, conventional clinical assessment; CVP, central venous pressure; EDM, esophageal Doppler monitoring.

Table 4 – Results on utilities of the economic decision model analysis.

| Strategies | Costs (€) | Δ Costs (€) | QALY | Δ QALY | ICER |
|-----------------|-----------|-------------|-------|--------|-----------|
| CCA | 14,830 | | 13.21 | | Dominated |
| CCA + EDM | 14,256 | | 13.24 | | |
| CCA + CVP | 15,244 | | 14.37 | | Dominated |
| CCA + CVP + EDM | 14,415 | 159 | 14.58 | 1.34 | 118.65 |

Costs are in Euros.
Δ, incremental change; CCA, conventional clinical assessment; CVP, central venous pressure; EDM, esophageal Doppler monitoring; ICER, incremental cost-effectiveness ratio; QALY, quality-adjusted life year.

[20]. The comparisons made between alternatives not containing CVP measurements were indirect and must be understood with caution. For the CCA alone strategy, data were obtained from Dodd [12] (the only source available for such information). Moreover, those published data regarding the comparison of CCA + EDM versus CCA did not involve colorectal surgery. Therefore, RRs were calculated using data from other RCTs [16,17] involving high-risk surgery. Some of the RCTs included pooled patient data with and without CVP measurements. Consequently, a model with only two alternatives, CCA + EDM (with or without CVP) versus CCA (with or without CVP) could be used to determine the cost-effectiveness of adding EDM to CR treatment. The results of Dodd included in this work were obtained as a personal communication of unpublished observations. This study was included because it is an RCT, and thus allowed two more alternatives to be considered in the cost-effectiveness analysis. The results taken from this study, however, were not used in the core comparison i.e., CCA + CVP + EDM versus CCA + CVP.

Due to the nature of the EDM procedure, RCTs on EDM are unlikely to be blinded. These studies are subject to the classic bias of non-blinded studies. In addition, clinicians might be more aware of the information provided by the new device and, therefore, more likely to make a decision on its further use quickly. If this were the case, the effect of EDM might be overestimated and one would have to wait until the device were used more generally for this source of bias to disappear.

As explained in the Methods section, unit cost data were obtained from the Madrid Health System, the La Paz Hospital finance department, and from device manufacturers; it was assumed that such data would best reflect real practice. Even so, this information was compared with published cost data [25,26]; no significant differences were seen in the results.

It was assumed that the costs for patients who died were the same as those for patients who had complications because the RCTs also indicated previous HDU stays for such patients before their deaths [3,4]. This might, however, have resulted in an overestimation of the costs. Several diagnostic-related group costing studies have reported that, in general, patients who die in the hospital actually incur lower costs than those who survive due to their relatively short stays and restricted use of other resources.

Although the present study sought to use the most robust data available, the literature used to populate the present economic decision model may not represent actual practice. Further research for this patient group, i.e., those undergoing CR, should include the use of different clinical protocols detailing the intra- and postoperative volume of fluid needed to improve patient outcomes [30]. The limited evidence available meant that it was not possible to include surgical monitoring with strategies using other minimally invasive monitoring systems (e.g., thermo-dilution or lithium dilution) in the present analysis.

The focus of the present study was the cost-effectiveness of the intraoperative monitoring of hemodynamic function by EDM. Other researchers have considered the use of hemodynamic monitoring in the postoperative period in an HDU setting [14,31]. The

present study did not consider this setting; further research would be required to evaluate this.

Kehlet [32] proposed a series of measures designed to improve recovery following major colorectal surgery within the well-known fast-track or enhanced recovery program. The most recent protocols of this kind include EDM during colorectal surgery. Other measures proposed were optimized nutrition, early mobilization, avoiding colon preparation, and avoiding drainages.

A theoretical reduction in mortality would induce higher costs derived from the health care of surviving patients, but would also increase global survival and the QALYs obtained. In the present study, it was assumed that the long-term costs generated, and the QALYs gained, were the same for all discharged patients [29]. These assumptions may not always hold because the type and seriousness of complications are different, and some may have a more serious impact on patient's later well-being. No information, however, was available in this regard. Further work would be needed to address this possibility. It is unlikely, however, that sufficient complications of sufficient seriousness to alter the overall understanding of the present results would occur. Furthermore, the present results suggest that if EDM were always used, fewer such complications would occur.

Conclusions

In conclusion, if the results of the small size RCTs examined in the present study are confirmed in daily practice, the present assessment indicates that a strategy of hemodynamic monitoring that includes CCA + CVP + EDM during elective colorectal surgery would be cost-effective, improving health outcomes and saving health care resources.

Further primary studies comparing other forms of monitoring, such as pulse wave analysis monitoring, are required. These studies should include economic assessments so that different strategies can be compared. Well designed studies are needed to confirm whether the estimated savings and improved outcomes obtained with EDM hold true in practice. Similar studies should also be performed in patients undergoing other types of surgery.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Prof. Luke Vale (University of Aberdeen) for useful comments. Thanks are also due to Dr. Natalia Peña (University Hospital La Paz of Madrid) for her expert opinions; Mr. Graham Mowatt and colleagues, University of Aberdeen, for providing us a systematic review of the literature; Mrs. Elena Bonilla (Madrid Health System) for facilitating cost data; and Mrs. Ana López-Polín (Agencia Lain Entralgo) for help in preparing the manuscript.

Source of financial support: None.

REFERENCES

- [1] Boyd O, Bennett ED. Achieving the goal. *Crit Care Med* 1999;27:2298–9.
- [2] Mythen MG, Webb AR. Intra-operative gut mucosal hypoperfusion is associated with increased post-operative complications and cost. *Intensive Care Med* 1994;20:99–104.
- [3] Noblett SE, Snowden CP, Shenton BK, Horgan AF. Randomized clinical trial assessing the effect of Doppler-optimized fluid management on outcome after elective colorectal resection. *Br J Surg* 2006;93:1069–76.
- [4] Conway DH, Mayall R, Abdul-Latif MS, et al. Randomised controlled trial investigating the influence of intravenous fluid titration using oesophageal Doppler monitoring during bowel surgery. *Anaesthesia* 2002;57:845–9.
- [5] Harvey S, Stevens K, Harrison D, et al. An evaluation of the clinical and cost-effectiveness of pulmonary artery catheters in patient management in intensive care: a systematic review and a randomised controlled trial. *Health Technol Assess* 2006;10:iii–xi, 1.
- [6] Sandham JD, Hull RD, Brant RF, et al. A randomized, controlled trial of the use of pulmonary-artery catheters in high-risk surgical patients. *N Engl J Med* 2003;348:5–14.
- [7] Monge MI, Estella A, Diaz JC, Gil A. Minimally invasive hemodynamic monitoring with esophageal echoDoppler [in Spanish]. *Med Intensiva* 2008;32:33–44.
- [8] Cholley BP, Payen D. Noninvasive techniques for measurements of cardiac output. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2005;11:424–9.
- [9] Mowatt G, Houston G, Hernandez R, et al. Systematic review of the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of oesophageal Doppler monitoring in critically ill and high-risk surgical patients. *Health Technol Assess* 2009;13:1–118.
- [10] ECRI Evidence-based Practice Center. Esophageal doppler ultrasound-based cardiac output monitoring for real-time therapeutic management of hospitalized patients. A review. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; January 2007. Contract No. 290-02-0019.
- [11] Chytra I, Pradl R, Bosman R, Pelnar P, Kasal E, Zidkova A. Esophageal Doppler-guided fluid management decreases blood lactate levels in multiple-trauma patients: a randomized controlled trial. *Crit Care* 2007;11:R24.
- [12] Dodd TEL, McCormick RN, Dorman F, et al. Using the Oesophageal Doppler Monitor in Elective Colorectal Surgery. Is it worth it?. Annual Meeting of Wessex Anaesthetists in Training. Poole, UK. 2004.
- [13] Gan TJ, Soppitt A, Maroof M, et al. Goal-directed intraoperative fluid administration reduces length of hospital stay after major surgery. *Anesthesiology* 2002;97:820–6.
- [14] McKendry M, McGloin H, Saberi D, et al. Randomised controlled trial assessing the impact of a nurse delivered, flow monitored protocol for optimisation of circulatory status after cardiac surgery. *BMJ* 2004;329:258.
- [15] Mythen MG, Webb AR. Perioperative plasma volume expansion reduces the incidence of gut mucosal hypoperfusion during cardiac surgery. *Arch Surg* 1995;130:423–9.
- [16] Sinclair S, James S, Singer M. Intraoperative intravascular volume optimisation and length of hospital stay after repair of proximal femoral fracture: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* 1997;315:909–12.
- [17] Venn R, Steele A, Richardson P, et al. Randomized controlled trial to investigate influence of the fluid challenge on duration of hospital stay and perioperative morbidity in patients with hip fractures. *Br J Anaesth* 2002;88:65–71.
- [18] Wakeling HG, McFall MR, Jenkins CS, et al. Intraoperative oesophageal Doppler guided fluid management shortens postoperative hospital stay after major bowel surgery. *Br J Anaesth* 2005;95:634–42.
- [19] Bundgaard-Nielsen M, Holte K, Secher NH, Kehlet H. Monitoring of peri-operative fluid administration by individualized goal-directed therapy. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2007;51:331–40.
- [20] Higgins JPT, Green S. *Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions*. Version 5.0.1 [updated March 2011]. The Cochrane Collaboration. Available from: <http://www.cochrane-handbook.org/> [Accessed April 18, 2011].
- [21] Drummond MF, Sculpher MJ, Torrance GW, et al. *Methods for the Economic Evaluation of Health Care Programmes*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2005.
- [22] Lowson KV, Drummond MF, Bishop JM. Costing new services: long-term domiciliary oxygen therapy. *Lancet* 1981;1:1146–9.
- [23] Grupo de Elaboración Validación de Instrumentos de Evaluación de la Calidad de los productos de Agencias/Unidades de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias (GEVIEC). *Instrumentos metodológicos para la evaluación de productos de las Agencias de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias*. Madrid: Plan Nacional para el SNS del MSC. Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias. Agencia Lain Entralgo; 2008. Informes de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias: UETS N° 2006/01.
- [24] López Bastida J, Oliva J, Antónanzas F, et al. Propuesta de guía para la evaluación económica aplicada a las tecnologías sanitarias. Madrid: Plan Nacional para el SNS del MSC. Servicio de Evaluación del Servicio Canario de la Salud; 2008. Informes de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias: SESCS N° 2006/22.
- [25] Díez del Val I. Bypass gástrico abierto o laparoscópico: comparación de costes. *Cir Esp* 2004;75:299–300.
- [26] Gómez A, Barrios B, Taibo MA, et al. Valor (beneficio/coste) de la cirugía laparoscópica en contraste con la abierta. Comparación de costes. *Kirurgia* 2005;3.
- [27] Briggs A, Claxton K, Sculpher M. *Decision Modelling for Health Economic Evaluation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press; 2006.
- [28] Briggs A, Sculpher M, Dawson J, et al. The use of probabilistic decision models in technology assessment: the case of total hip replacement. *Appl Health Econ Health Policy* 2004;3:79–89.
- [29] de Verteuil RM, Hernández RA, Vale L; Aberdeen Health Technology Assessment Group. Economic evaluation of laparoscopic surgery for colorectal cancer. *Int J Technol Assess Health Care* 2007;23:464–72.
- [30] Joshi GP. Intraoperative fluid restriction improves outcome after major elective gastrointestinal surgery. *Anesth Analg* 2005;101:601–5.
- [31] Pearse R, Dawson D, Fawcett J, et al. Early goal-directed therapy after major surgery reduces complications and duration of hospital stay. A randomised, controlled trial [ISRCTN38797445]. *Crit Care* 2005;9:R687–93.
- [32] Kehlet H, Wilmore DW. Multimodal strategies to improve surgical outcome. *Am J Surg* 2002;183:630–41.

7. DISCUSIÓN

7.1. Artículo 1

La única revisión sistemática de conjunto sobre el dispositivo que localizamos fue la de Tooher et al (26) que era del año 2004 por lo que decidimos realizar una nueva revisión que actualizase aquella. Pudimos comprobar que el número de publicaciones sobre esta tecnología había ido aumentando de manera progresiva a lo largo de los años desde su aparición. Nos pareció adecuado realizar metaanálisis para aquellas medidas de resultado en que fuera posible y así tener una idea global de la efectividad comparando el EQDV y la CL.

En este trabajo hemos revisado de manera sistemática la evidencia científica disponible sobre la utilización del sistema Da Vinci en cirugía general y hemos encontrado que los estudios disponibles son limitados y de baja calidad. Hemos incluido 31 artículos, entre los que sólo seis fueron ECA. Respecto a la calidad de los estudios pudimos observar además de la falta de aleatorización y cegamiento que en la mitad de los estudios no se compararon las características basales o se encontraron diferencias en las mismas entre los grupos de intervención. El objetivo, el seguimiento y la intervención fueron ítems que indicaban buena calidad de los artículos.

Respecto a la cirugía gastro-esofágica analizamos la funduplicatura de Nissen, la miotomía de Heller, el bypass gástrico, la gastrectomía y la cirugía bariátrica. En la comparación entre la cirugía de funduplicatura de Nissen mediante el EQDV frente a la CL la evidencia revisada no permite establecer preferencias de ninguna de las técnicas frente a la otra. Suponiendo igualdad de efectividad si los costes del dispositivo son mayores que los de la CL, como cabe suponer, no estaría justificada la utilización del dispositivo en esta indicación. La miotomía de Heller asistida por el EQDV presenta un riesgo de perforación inferior y un estudio muestra una mejor calidad de vida frente a la CL. La cirugía realizada mediante el EQDV sería la opción preferible. En la comparación entre la cirugía de bypass gástrico mediante el EQDV frente a la CL hemos observado un mayor número de conversiones en la cirugía asistida robóticamente. Si los costes del dispositivo son mayores que los de la CL sería preferible la realización de

CL en esta indicación. En la gastrectomía mediante el EQDV apreciamos un menor tiempo de recuperación y menor tiempo de estancia pero una cirugía más prolongada, lo que desde el punto de vista del paciente podría suponer un balance favorable para la cirugía mediante el EQDV a falta de valorar los costes. Un estudio que compara la cirugía bariátrica mediante EQDV frente a la CL indica que la cirugía mediante el EQDV es más prolongada y costosa sin ninguna otra ventaja por lo que no estaría justificada su utilización generalizada.

Cuando nos referimos a cirugía hepatobiliopancreática y esplénica incluimos la colecistectomía y la esplenectomía. En la comparación entre la colecistectomía mediante cirugía asistida por el EQDV frente a la CL hemos apreciado una menor estancia pero un mayor tiempo de cirugía y mayores costes. Hemos localizado una revisión de la Cochrane sobre colecistectomía laparoscópica asistida robóticamente pero que incluía dispositivos robóticos distintos al Da Vinci que indica que la cirugía robótica se trata de una técnica segura aunque sin ventajas significativas respecto a la técnica laparoscópica convencional (41). Hemos incluido un solo estudio de muy pequeño tamaño muestral que compara la técnica mediante el EQDV frente a la CL para cirugía de esplenectomía que no presenta ninguna ventaja que justifique los mayores costes de la cirugía mediante el EQDV.

En cuanto a la cirugía colorrectal incluimos la resección colorrectal y la rectopexia. En la comparación entre la cirugía de resección colorrectal mediante el EQDV frente a la CL, para diferentes patologías y secciones intestinales, observamos un mayor tiempo quirúrgico y mayores costes para el EQDV y no encontramos ninguna otra diferencia entre las técnicas por lo que no parece apropiado su uso generalizado. Como indican Ng et al (42) en una revisión de 2007 la cirugía de resección abdominal asistida robóticamente aporta beneficios para el cirujano pero hace falta mayor investigación para ver su traducción en mejores resultados para los pacientes. Un solo estudio localizado compara la cirugía mediante el EQDV frente a la CL para la realización de rectopexia y no presenta ninguna ventaja que justifique los mayores costes de la cirugía mediante el EQDV.

Hemos incluido exclusivamente la comparación entre cirugía asistida mediante EQDV y la CL aunque en aquellos casos en los que no se haya demostrado una superioridad de la técnica laparoscópica frente a la cirugía abierta podría ser interesante conocer también los resultados de la comparación entre el EQDV y la cirugía abierta o incluso la comparación de la CL frente a la cirugía abierta.

Dada la existencia de un periodo de aprendizaje algunas variables de resultado como las referentes a los tiempos quirúrgicos, tal y como indican algunos estudios pueden variar a lo largo del tiempo según se incrementa el número de procedimientos realizados. Por lo tanto estudios que incluyan los primeros procedimientos realizados por el equipo quirúrgico presentarán diferentes resultados de aquellos que incluyan procedimientos posteriores con una mayor experiencia acumulada. Probablemente los grupos que realizan investigación y publican resultados sean aquellos con mayor experiencia y destreza y que por lo tanto obtienen mejores resultados que los habituales. Podría existir un sesgo de publicación de estudios y de variables significativas a favor del procedimiento nuevo que sobrevalorase el efecto beneficioso de esta tecnología.

A la hora de establecer recomendaciones sobre las distintas técnicas quirúrgicas para cada tipo de intervención sería apropiado obtener información acerca de la evidencia disponible que compare la cirugía abierta frente a la laparoscópica (43;44). En aquellos casos donde la cirugía laparoscópica no haya demostrado una superioridad frente a la cirugía abierta la comparación pertinente sería cirugía abierta frente a cirugía laparoscópica sea esta convencional o asistida por dispositivos como el que aquí estudiamos.

La evidencia disponible para evaluar esta tecnología es limitada, sólo hemos localizado seis ensayos clínicos aleatorizados y el tamaño muestral de las comparaciones de los estudios incluidos es en general pequeño. Respecto a la calidad de los estudios incluidos además de la mencionada falta de aleatorización hemos de destacar una falta de cegamiento, en cierto modo comprensible debido a la dificultad de realizar un adecuado enmascaramiento por las características de la intervención

evaluada. Aproximadamente el 40% de los estudios controlados tuvieron un grupo de control histórico por lo que además de limitarse la comparabilidad entre los grupos podría existir un sesgo, ya que además de la técnica empleada podría estar influyendo la mejoría de otros aspectos del cuidado de éste tipo de pacientes.

En aquellas variables que tuvimos oportunidad de realizar metaanálisis comprobamos que en muchos casos existía una elevada heterogeneidad estadística. Cuando un estudio concentraba gran parte de dicha heterogeneidad analizamos la existencia de posibles diferencias metodológicas entre dicho estudio y los demás que pudiesen justificar dicha heterogeneidad, en la mayoría de los casos no encontramos ninguna diferencia metodológica entre este estudio y los otros que pueda explicar la heterogeneidad existente.

Sería interesante obtener la información necesaria de los autores de los estudios primarios para complementar la información publicada y realizar los metaanálisis pertinentes, especialmente en el caso de los ECA. En la presente revisión la valoración de la importancia de cada una de las variables de resultado se hizo en función del criterio del grupo investigador. Sería interesante utilizar alguna herramienta para la ayuda de toma de decisiones como GRADE, o un panel de expertos que ayudase a ponderar la importancia de las diferentes variables evaluadas. Sería importante establecer una serie de variables clave ya que en algunas indicaciones el balance favorable hacia alguna de las técnicas comparadas se realiza en función de variables de resultado intermedias y por tanto no tan directamente relacionadas con un mejor resultado quirúrgico. En estos casos una evaluación económica del dispositivo podría cambiar el balance global de la comparación.

Podrían existir ventajas para el cirujano que no hayan sido evaluadas en los estudios incluidos como unas mejores condiciones ergonómicas y una mejora de las capacidades del cirujano que podrían conducir a un menor estrés durante la intervención.

Respecto al tipo de tecnología en cuestión probablemente se trate de una tecnología evolutiva más que de una tecnología disruptiva que vaya a sustituir a las técnicas previamente existentes por lo que será necesario continuar estudiando y evaluando las distintas indicaciones para conocer en qué casos puede suponer una ventaja frente a la técnica habitual.

Hemos de destacar entre las limitaciones de la revisión que no se incluyeron series de casos que pudiesen aportar información al respecto a la seguridad pero se consideraron variables de resultado directamente relacionadas con la seguridad del dispositivo como las complicaciones, conversiones o tasa de márgenes quirúrgicos positivos. Dada la selección exclusivamente de estudios que incluyesen un grupo control no se ha podido extraer cierta información de estudios de series de casos que complementarían el análisis de la curva de aprendizaje del uso de esta tecnología.

En resumen, en la comparación de la cirugía mediante EQDV frente a la CL encontramos las siguientes diferencias para la cirugía mediante el EQDV. La miotomía presenta menos perforaciones, la gastrectomía una estancia y recuperación intestinal más cortas con mayor tiempo quirúrgico, la colecistectomía menor estancia pero mayor tiempo quirúrgico, el bypass gástrico mayor número de conversiones y la resección colorrectal un mayor tiempo quirúrgico. Por lo tanto encontramos hallazgos positivos de esta técnica para la miotomía de Heller y negativos para la resección colorrectal y el bypass gástrico mientras que para otras técnicas hay ventajas encontradas entre ambas técnicas o no existen diferencias entre ellas. Otras indicaciones o variables de resultado analizadas no mostraron diferencias entre ambas técnicas.

Sería deseable la realización de ensayos clínicos aleatorizados especialmente en el caso de la miotomía de Heller o resección colorrectal. Se requerirían resultados a más largo plazo especialmente en el caso de patología oncológica como la gastrectomía o la resección colorrectal. Sería interesante la realización de evaluaciones económicas para las distintas indicaciones, especialmente para la colecistectomía.

7.2. Artículo 2

En general, los resultados presentados sugieren que el EQDV, que es mínimamente invasivo, logra mejores resultados a corto plazo quirúrgicas que la cirugía abierta, incluyendo la reducción de las pérdidas de sangre, y una probabilidad menor de que se requiera una transfusión. No se observaron diferencias entre el EQDV y la cirugía abierta con respecto al número de pacientes que sufren complicaciones, excepto en la histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer endometrial en la que el EQDV mostró menos complicaciones. La estancia hospitalaria parece ser más corta con EQDV en todas las indicaciones. Sin embargo, los tiempos de cirugía eran más largos con EQDV excepto en histerectomía radical para el cáncer de cuello de útero (sin diferencias significativas). Más ganglios linfáticos se resecaron durante una histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer endometrial cuando se utiliza el EQDV, pero no se observaron diferencias con respecto a la histerectomía radical por cáncer de cuello uterino. En la reanastomosis de las trompas de Falopio, se registraron un número similar de embarazos ectópicos, abortos y embarazos intrauterinos. Resultados similares también se obtuvieron con el EQDV y la sacrocolopexia abdominal con respecto al apoyo de cúpula vaginal (mientras que el EQDV proporciona mejores resultados con respecto al soporte del manguito de endometrio o vaginal). Los estudios con histerectomía no proporcionaron resultados clínicos a largo plazo.

No se encontró una buena evaluación costo/beneficio con respecto al uso del EQDV. Si bien los resultados obtenidos muestran que, en comparación con la cirugía abierta, el EQDV puede proporcionar a los pacientes ciertos beneficios a corto plazo, no existe información rigurosa que estuviera disponible en el coste adicional de estos beneficios. En la reanastomosis de las trompas de Falopio, dos artículos (45;46) informaron que el EQDV supone un coste extra de 1.400 € y 2.000 dólares americanos sobre la cirugía abierta y un coste extra de 18.000 dólares americanos en la miomectomía (47). Se deben realizar más evaluaciones económicas si queremos entender mejor la relación costo/beneficio del EQDV.

En la histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio, la histerectomía radical por cáncer de cuello de útero y la histerectomía por enfermedad benigna, el EQDV se asoció con una reducción significativa de las pérdidas de sangre durante la cirugía comparada con la cirugía laparoscópica (excepto en anexectomía, en el que no se observaron diferencias). También se asocia con una estancia hospitalaria más corta en la histerectomía por enfermedad benigna, aunque no se observaron diferencias en otras indicaciones. La magnitud de las diferencias entre el EQDV y la cirugía laparoscópica con respecto a estas variables fue sin embargo no muy grande (50-70 ml de sangre y 0,5 días estancia en el hospital) y, ciertamente, de poca importancia desde un punto de vista clínico. El EQDV y la cirugía laparoscópica también fueron equivalentes en términos de seguridad. No se observaron diferencias en cuanto al número de pacientes que sufren complicaciones ni el número de veces que los cirujanos tuvieron que recurrir a la cirugía abierta. Las diferencias en el tiempo de la cirugía varió mucho entre los estudios (probablemente una consecuencia de la curva de aprendizaje del EQDV), sin embargo, el metaanálisis no encontró diferencias significativas entre el EQDV y la CL con respecto a esta variable.

La histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio es la indicación para la que el EQDV tuvo los mejores resultados en comparación con la cirugía laparoscópica; la pérdida de sangre se redujo, había menos probabilidad de que se requiera una transfusión, y las conversiones fueron menores, las complicaciones y los tiempos de cirugía fueron similares.

Aunque faltan las evaluaciones económicas, se podría esperar que EQDV estar asociado con costos más altos. Los costos de adquisición, uso y mantenimiento del sistema son todos elevados. En aquellas indicaciones en las que el EQDV se observó que se asocia con la reducción de las pérdidas de sangre, se necesitan evaluaciones económicas para arrojar luz sobre la relación costo/beneficio en comparación con la de CL. Desde un punto de vista clínico, el beneficio asociado con EQDV no es muy grande, y si el desembolso económico necesario para lograr esto es grande el EQDV no sea justificable. El EQDV proporciona los mejores resultados en la histerectomía para la

estadificación del cáncer de endometrio. En la actualidad es más fácil de justificar su uso en esta indicación, aunque las evaluaciones económicas siguen siendo necesarias para poder tomar una decisión final.

Los estudios incluidos en esta revisión fundamentalmente aportan resultados perioperatorios y postoperatorios a corto plazo. Muy poca información se proporciona en relación con las comparaciones a largo plazo del EQDV y la cirugía abierta o la cirugía laparoscópica en las diferentes indicaciones. Son muy necesarios estudios a más largo plazo.

El sesgo es un problema a considerar dado el diseño de los estudios examinados. Ninguno era aleatorio, y ningún estudio fue cegado (lo cual es comprensible ya que un cirujano debe forzosamente saber la cirugía que se está realizando). Aproximadamente el 83% (19/23) de los estudios tuvo un grupo de control histórico, la mayoría eran de diseño retrospectivo, y la selección de los pacientes no fue discutido. Estos problemas limitan la capacidad para comparar los estudios. En efecto, puede ser difícil, incluso dentro de los estudios ya que las diferencias eran a veces aparentes entre los grupos de tratamiento. El uso de controles históricos sufre del problema de que, con el tiempo, los aspectos de la atención al paciente (con excepción de los tratamientos bajo examen) podrían haber mejorado, que influyen en los resultados finales obtenidos. Tampoco los estudios examinaron el cuidado postoperatorio recibido ni los criterios de alta. Las diferencias en estas variables pueden ser responsables de las diferencias observadas en la estancia hospitalaria o pérdidas de sangre y transfusiones. Se requieren estudios más rigurosos que impliquen la asignación al azar de los pacientes, se requiere el uso de diseños de estudios prospectivos y la utilización de controles simultáneos para controlar estas fuentes de sesgo.

En la interpretación de los resultados también debe tenerse en cuenta que el uso del EQDV se asocia con un período de aprendizaje. Los valores de ciertas variables, como la duración de la cirugía, pueden variar con el tiempo con el aumento del número de veces que un procedimiento se realiza y la experiencia que se adquiera. Los

estudios que incluyen los primeros procedimientos llevados a cabo por un equipo quirúrgico se puede esperar que muestren resultados diferentes de los obtenidos cuando el equipo ha ganado experiencia. Además, los equipos que llevan a cabo la investigación y la publicación de resultados pueden ser los que tienen más experiencia o mayor habilidad, y estos resultados podrían ser mejores de lo que normalmente se espera. Por último, el sesgo de publicación puede existir con relación a los estudios que informaron diferencias significativas, que pueden conducir a una sobreestimación de los resultados.

Otra limitación del presente estudio es que sólo se incluyeron los estudios controlados. La exclusión de las series de casos conduce a la pérdida de la información que podría haber permitido un análisis de la curva de aprendizaje del EQDV. La exclusión de estos estudios también significa que la información que contienen sobre la seguridad de la técnica no está incluida.

Para muchas de las variables que fueron objeto de los metaanálisis, se apreció generalmente un alto grado de heterogeneidad estadística. Cuando un solo estudio se concentra una gran parte de esta heterogeneidad, se buscaron diferencias metodológicas que podrían explicarlo. Sin embargo, en la mayoría de los casos no se observaron tales diferencias metodológicas.

Algunas ventajas que las diferentes técnicas podrían haber proporcionado a los cirujanos no han sido evaluados, por ejemplo, las ventajas ergonómicas o la mejora de la capacidad del cirujano que podría haber dado lugar a que él sufra menos estrés intraoperatorio durante la operación. Además, los estudios incluidos analizan principalmente los resultados quirúrgicos; pocos datos estaban disponibles sobre la eficacia clínica.

El EQDV sigue evolucionando y es poco probable que sustituir todas las alternativas a corto plazo. Se necesitan más estudios para evaluar su uso en diferentes indicaciones para determinar en cuales podría ofrecer ventajas.

En resumen, para las indicaciones estudiadas, el EQDV se asoció con mejores resultados que la cirugía abierta en términos de estancia en el hospital y pérdida de sangre durante la cirugía. El número de pacientes que sufren complicaciones fue similar. Las comparaciones entre el EQDV y la cirugía laparoscópica mostraron mejores resultados para el primero en la histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio, con una reducción de las pérdidas de sangre durante la cirugía y menos necesidad de derivación a otro tipo de cirugía. En la histerectomía radical para el cáncer del cuello del útero, para el tratamiento de la enfermedad benigna, y en la miomectomía, la pérdida de sangre durante la cirugía fue también algo reducida con el EQDV, aunque las diferencias no fueron muy importantes desde un punto de vista clínico. Los resultados restantes examinados fueron equivalentes para ambas técnicas. Sin embargo la falta de estandarización en los métodos de estimación de la pérdida de sangre, manejo post-operatorio, los criterios de alta y de las indicaciones de transfusión es problemático. Se necesitan evaluaciones económicas para determinar si las ventajas que ofrece el EQDV sobre la CL son económicamente justificables. Además, estudios rigurosos que examinen los resultados clínicos a largo plazo de los pacientes tratados con el EQDV y otras tecnologías son necesarios - estudios que también debe controlar las posibles fuentes de sesgo. Esperamos que en los estudios futuros de estos dispositivos se incluyan los resultados clínicos.

7.3. Artículo 3

En el presente análisis basado en los resultados de cuatro estudios con un total de 343 pacientes, y comparando todas las combinaciones posibles de monitorización, se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas en términos complicaciones totales y complicaciones mayores que favorecían el uso de las alternativas que incluyeron el Doppler. No se observaron diferencias significativas en cuanto a mortalidad.

También se realizó un análisis de costo-efectividad de la utilización de EDTE en cirugía colorrectal, incluyendo la mejor evidencia disponible en la literatura. Hasta donde sabemos, esta es la primera evaluación económica completa de EDTE. La estrategia ECC+PVC+EDTE fue más eficaz y menos costosa que cualquiera de las otras estrategias. Los ahorros de costes se deben principalmente a un menor número de complicaciones, estancias hospitalarias más cortas y los tiempos de intervención más cortos.

En el presente análisis sólo se consideraron los costos y la eficacia clínica hasta el alta hospitalaria. Como las complicaciones más frecuentes fueron la neumonía, infección de la herida quirúrgica o dehiscencia y arritmias, se ha supuesto que no hay diferencias resultados a largo plazo tras el alta. La perspectiva del hospital es un buen indicador de la perspectiva del sistema de atención de la salud en general ya las complicaciones descritas en los ECA, como la neumonía, complicaciones de la herida quirúrgica o arritmias, se tratan durante la estancia en el hospital y no requiere visitas de atención primaria después del alta.

La solidez de este análisis es máximo para la comparación entre ECC+PVC+EDTE y ECC+PVC ya que ha habido más ensayos con estas alternativas, lo que permitió utilizar métodos de metaanálisis generales. El método de Mantel-Haenszel fue elegido

ya que se recomienda para las pruebas de diferencias en las proporciones en que los acontecimientos son relativamente poco comunes (29). Las comparaciones entre las alternativas que no contienen medidas de PVC fueron indirectas, por lo que deben ser entendidas con precaución. Para la estrategia de ECC solos, los datos se obtuvieron de Dodd (16) (la única fuente disponible de dicha información). Por otra parte, los datos publicados con respecto a la comparación de ECC+EDTE frente ECC no implican cirugía colorrectal. Por lo tanto, los RR fueron calculados usando datos de otros ECA (20;21) que implican una cirugía de alto riesgo. Algunos de los ECA incluyeron los datos de pacientes agrupados con y sin medidas de PVC. Por consiguiente, un modelo con sólo dos alternativas, ECC+EDTE (con o sin PVC) frente ECC (con o sin PVC) podría ser utilizado para determinar la eficacia de coste de añadir EDTE al tratamiento de la cirugía colorrectal. Los resultados de Dodd incluidos en este trabajo se obtuvieron como una comunicación personal de observaciones no publicadas. Este estudio se incluyó porque es un ECA, y por lo tanto permite dos opciones más a considerar en el análisis de costo-efectividad. Los resultados extraídos de este estudio, sin embargo, no se utilizaron en la comparación principal, es decir, ECC+PVC+EDTE frente ECC+PVC.

Debido a la naturaleza del procedimiento del EDTE, los ECAs sobre EDTE es poco probable que sean cegados. Estos estudios están sujetos a los sesgos clásicos de los estudios no cegados. Además, los médicos pueden estar más al tanto de la información proporcionada por el nuevo dispositivo y por lo tanto más propensos a tomar una decisión sobre su uso ulterior con rapidez. Si este fuera el caso, el efecto de EDTE podría estar sobreestimado y uno tendría que esperar hasta que el dispositivo se utiliza en general para que desaparezca esta fuente de sesgo.

Como se explica en la metodología, se obtuvieron datos de costos unitarios del Sistema Madrileño de Salud, del departamento de contabilidad del Hospital de la Paz y de los fabricantes de dispositivos, ya que se supone que esos datos reflejan mejor la práctica real. Aun así, esta información se comparó con los datos de costes publicados (36;37), no se observaron diferencias significativas en los resultados.

Se partió del supuesto de que los costos para los pacientes que murieron fueron los mismos que los de los pacientes que sufren complicaciones ya que las ECAs también indicaron, para aquellos pacientes, estancias en UCI antes de su muerte (7;8). Esto puede, sin embargo, dar lugar a una sobreestimación de los costes. Varios estudios de costes de grupos relacionados con el diagnóstico han demostrado que, en general, los pacientes que mueren en el hospital en realidad incurren en costes más bajos que los que sobreviven debido a sus estancias relativamente cortas y restricción del uso de otros recursos.

Aunque el presente estudio trató de utilizar los datos más sólidos disponibles, la bibliografía utilizada para alimentar el presente modelo de decisión económica puede no representar la práctica real. La investigación adicional para este grupo de pacientes, es decir, los que se someten cirugía colorrectal, debe incluir el uso de diferentes protocolos clínicos que detallan el volumen intra-y postoperatoria de fluido necesario para mejorar los resultados del paciente (48). La evidencia limitada disponible hizo que no era posible incluir la monitorización quirúrgica con las estrategias que utilizan otros sistemas de monitorización mínimamente invasivos (por ejemplo, termodilución o dilución de litio) en el presente análisis.

El objetivo del presente estudio fue calcular el costo-efectividad de la monitorización intraoperatoria de la función hemodinámica por EDTE. Otros investigadores han examinado el uso de la monitorización hemodinámica en el postoperatorio en un entorno de UCI (18;49). El presente estudio no tuvo en cuenta este escenario, una investigación adicional sería necesaria para evaluar esto.

Kehlet (50) propuso una serie de medidas destinadas a mejorar la recuperación después de una cirugía colorrectal en el programa de recuperación rápida o mejorada ampliamente conocida. Los protocolos de este tipo más recientes incluyen la monitorización mediante EDTE durante la cirugía colorrectal. Otras medidas que se han propuesto incluyen la nutrición optimizada, la movilización temprana, evitar la preparación del colon y evitar drenajes.

Una reducción teórica de la mortalidad induciría mayores costos derivados de la atención de la salud de los pacientes que sobreviven, pero también aumenta la supervivencia global y los AVAC obtenidos. En el presente trabajo, se asumió que los costos a largo plazo generados, y los AVAC ganados, eran los mismos para todos los pacientes dados de alta (40). Estos supuestos, sin embargo, no siempre se mantienen ya que el tipo y la gravedad de las complicaciones sufridas son diferentes, y algunas pueden tener un impacto más grave sobre el bienestar del paciente después. Sin embargo, no se dispone de información al respecto. Un trabajo adicional sería necesario para hacer frente a esta posibilidad. Sin embargo, es poco probable que se produjeran complicaciones de suficiente gravedad para alterar los resultados generales del presente estudio. Además, los presentes resultados sugieren que si siempre se utiliza EDTE, se producirá un menor número de este tipo de complicaciones.

En conclusión, si los resultados de los ECA de pequeño tamaño examinados en el presente trabajo se confirman en la práctica diaria, la presente evaluación indica que una estrategia de monitorización hemodinámica que incluye ECC+PVC+EDTE durante la cirugía colorrectal electiva sería rentable, mejorando resultados de salud y ahorro de recursos sanitarios.

Se necesitan más estudios primarios que comparen otras formas de vigilancia, como la vigilancia, el análisis de la onda del pulso. Estos estudios deben incluir evaluaciones económicas, de manera que las diferentes estrategias se puedan comparar. Se necesitan estudios adicionales bien diseñados para confirmar si los ahorros estimados y mejores resultados obtenidos con EDTE son válidos en la práctica. Estudios similares también deben realizarse en los pacientes sometidos a otros tipos de cirugía.

8. CONCLUSIONES

8.1. Conclusiones del Objetivo 1

En resumen, en la comparación de la cirugía mediante EQDV frente a la CL encontramos las siguientes diferencias para la cirugía mediante el EQDV. La miotomía presenta menos perforaciones, la gastrectomía una estancia y recuperación intestinal más cortas con mayor tiempo quirúrgico, la colecistectomía menor estancia pero mayor tiempo quirúrgico, el bypass gástrico mayor número de conversiones y la resección colorrectal un mayor tiempo quirúrgico.

Por lo tanto encontramos hallazgos positivos de esta técnica para la miotomía de Heller, relativamente positivos para la gastrectomía y colecistectomía; y negativos para la resección colorrectal y el bypass gástrico.

Estos resultados se deben interpretar con cautela a la espera de ensayos clínicos aleatorios y, en indicaciones oncológicas, estudios que incluyan variables clínicas finales como la supervivencia.

8.2. Conclusiones del Objetivo 2

La evidencia disponible indica que la cirugía robótica puede ofrecer ciertas ventajas con respecto a los resultados a corto plazo.

En resumen, para las indicaciones estudiadas, el EQDV se asoció con mejores resultados que la cirugía abierta en términos de estancia en el hospital y pérdida de sangre durante la cirugía. El número de pacientes que sufren complicaciones fue similar.

Las comparaciones entre el EQDV y la cirugía laparoscópica mostraron mejores resultados para el EQDV en la histerectomía para la estadificación del cáncer de endometrio, con una reducción de las pérdidas de sangre durante la cirugía y menos necesidad de derivación a otro tipo de cirugía.

En la histerectomía radical para el cáncer del cuello del útero, para el tratamiento de la enfermedad benigna, y en la miomectomía, la pérdida de sangre durante la cirugía fue también algo reducida con el EQDV, aunque las diferencias no fueron muy importantes desde un punto de vista clínico.

Sin embargo, estos resultados deben ser interpretados con cautela, estudios rigurosos, además, se deben realizar para evaluar los resultados clínicos a largo plazo y la rentabilidad.

8.3. Conclusiones del Objetivo 3

Aunque la información sobre la eficacia clínica de la monitorización Doppler esofágico en la resección colorrectal es limitada, estrategias que incluyen esta forma de monitoreo del flujo sanguíneo pueden ser rentables.

La estrategia ECC+PVC+EDTE fue más eficaz y menos costosa que cualquiera de las otras estrategias. Los ahorros de costes se deben principalmente a un menor número de complicaciones, estancias hospitalarias más cortas y los tiempos de intervención más cortos.

Se deben efectuar además las comparaciones de la monitorización Doppler frente a otros sistemas de monitorización hemodinámica.

9. ÍNDICE DE TABLAS Y FIGURAS

9.1. Índice de tablas

Tabla 1: Resumen de los datos disponibles de los ensayos clínicos aleatorizados sobre el uso de la monitorización con ecodoppler transesofágico durante la cirugía de resección colorrectal electiva

Tabla 2a. Datos usados en el caso base y en los análisis de sensibilidad

Tabla 2b. Datos usados en el caso base y en los análisis de sensibilidad

9.2. Índice de figuras

Figura 1. Estrategias de búsqueda bibliográfica de los objetivos 1 y 2

Figura 2. Árbol del modelo de decisión económica para la monitorización hemodinámica intraoperatoria mediante ecodoppler transesofágico

10. BIBLIOGRAFÍA

- (1) Mendivil A, Holloway RW, Boggess JF. Emergence of robotic assisted surgery in gynecologic oncology: American perspective. *Gynecol Oncol* 2009 Aug;114(2 Suppl):S24-S31.
- (2) Camberlin C, Senn A, Leys M, De Laet C. Robot-assisted surgery: health technology assessment. Health Services Research (HSR). Brussels:Belgian Health Care Knowledge Center (KCE); 2009. KCE reports 104C (D/2009/10.273/09). 2009.
- (3) Maeso S, Reza M, Blasco JA, Guerra M. Efectividad de la cirugía realizada mediante el equipo quirúrgico da Vinci. Madrid: 2009. Plan de Calidad para el SNS del MSC. Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias, Agencia Laín Entralgo. Informes de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias: UETS 2007/4. 2009.
- (4) Advincula AP, Reynolds RK. The use of robot-assisted laparoscopic hysterectomy in the patient with a scarred or obliterated anterior cul-de-sac. *JSL* 2005 Jul;9(3):287-91.
- (5) Boyd O, Bennett ED. Achieving the goal. *Crit Care Med* 1999 Oct;27(10):2298-9.
- (6) Mythen MG, Webb AR. Intra-operative gut mucosal hypoperfusion is associated with increased post-operative complications and cost. *Intensive Care Med* 1994;20(2):99-104.
- (7) Noblett SE, Snowden CP, Shenton BK, Horgan AF. Randomized clinical trial assessing the effect of Doppler-optimized fluid management on outcome after elective colorectal resection. *Br J Surg* 2006 Sep;93(9):1069-76.
- (8) Conway DH, Mayall R, Abdul-Latif MS, Gilligan S, Tackaberry C. Randomised controlled trial investigating the influence of intravenous fluid titration using oesophageal Doppler monitoring during bowel surgery. *Anaesthesia* 2002 Sep;57(9):845-9.
- (9) Harvey S, Stevens K, Harrison D, Young D, Brampton W, McCabe C, et al. An evaluation of the clinical and cost-effectiveness of pulmonary artery catheters in patient management in intensive care: a systematic review and a randomised controlled trial. *Health Technol Assess* 2006 Aug;10(29):iii-xi, 1.
- (10) Sandham JD, Hull RD, Brant RF, Knox L, Pineo GF, Doig CJ, et al. A randomized, controlled trial of the use of pulmonary-artery catheters in high-risk surgical patients. *N Engl J Med* 2003 Jan 2;348(1):5-14.

- (11) Cholley BP, Payen D. Noninvasive techniques for measurements of cardiac output. *Curr Opin Crit Care* 2005 Oct;11(5):424-9.
- (12) Monge MI, Estella A, Diaz JC, Gil A. [Minimally invasive hemodynamic monitoring with esophageal echoDoppler]. *Med Intensiva* 2008 Jan;32(1):33-44.
- (13) ECRI Evidence-based Practice Center. Esophageal doppler ultrasound-based cardiac output monitoring for real-time therapeutic management of hospitalized patients. A review. Agency of Healthcare Research and Technology. 2007 Jan. Contract No. 290-02-0019. 2007.
- (14) Mowatt G, Houston G, Hernandez R, de VR, Fraser C, Cuthbertson B, et al. Systematic review of the clinical effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of oesophageal Doppler monitoring in critically ill and high-risk surgical patients. *Health Technol Assess* 2009 Jan;13(7):iii-xii, 1.
- (15) Chytra I, Pradl R, Bosman R, Pelnar P, Kasal E, Zidkova A. Esophageal Doppler-guided fluid management decreases blood lactate levels in multiple-trauma patients: a randomized controlled trial. *Crit Care* 2007;11(1):R24.
- (16) Dodd TEL, McCormick RN, Dorman F, Green R, Bromilow J. Using the Oesophageal Doppler Monitor in Elective Colorectal Surgery. Is it worth it?. Annual Meeting of Wessex Anaesthetists in Training. Poole, UK. 2004.
- (17) Gan TJ, Soppitt A, Maroof M, el-Moalem H, Robertson KM, Moretti E, et al. Goal-directed intraoperative fluid administration reduces length of hospital stay after major surgery. *Anesthesiology* 2002 Oct;97(4):820-6.
- (18) McKendry M, McGloin H, Saberi D, Caudwell L, Brady AR, Singer M. Randomised controlled trial assessing the impact of a nurse delivered, flow monitored protocol for optimisation of circulatory status after cardiac surgery. *BMJ* 2004 Jul 31;329(7460):258.
- (19) Mythen MG, Webb AR. Perioperative plasma volume expansion reduces the incidence of gut mucosal hypoperfusion during cardiac surgery. *Arch Surg* 1995 Apr;130(4):423-9.

- (20) Sinclair S, James S, Singer M. Intraoperative intravascular volume optimisation and length of hospital stay after repair of proximal femoral fracture: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ* 1997 Oct 11;315(7113):909-12.
- (21) Venn R, Steele A, Richardson P, Poloniecki J, Grounds M, Newman P. Randomized controlled trial to investigate influence of the fluid challenge on duration of hospital stay and perioperative morbidity in patients with hip fractures. *Br J Anaesth* 2002 Jan;88(1):65-71.
- (22) Wakeling HG, McFall MR, Jenkins CS, Woods WG, Miles WF, Barclay GR, et al. Intraoperative oesophageal Doppler guided fluid management shortens postoperative hospital stay after major bowel surgery. *Br J Anaesth* 2005 Nov;95(5):634-42.
- (23) ECRI Evidence-based Practice Center. Esophageal doppler ultrasound-based cardiac output monitoring for real-time therapeutic management of hospitalized patients. A review. Agency of Healthcare Research and Technology. 2007 Jan. Contract No. 290-02-0019. 2007.
- (24) Bundgaard-Nielsen M, Holte K, Secher NH, Kehlet H. Monitoring of peri-operative fluid administration by individualized goal-directed therapy. *Acta Anaesthesiol Scand* 2007 Mar;51(3):331-40.
- (25) Oxman AD, Cook DJ, Guyatt GH. Users' guides to the medical literature. VI. How to use an overview. Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. *JAMA* 1994 Nov 2;272(17):1367-71.
- (26) Tooher R, Pham C. The da Vinci surgical robotics system: Technology overview ASERNIP-S Report No. 45. Adelaide, South Australia: ASERNIP-S, (July 2004). (ISBN:0909844658). 2004.
- (27) Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ. Users' guides to the medical literature. II. How to use an article about therapy or prevention. A. Are the results of the study valid? Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. *JAMA* 1993 Dec 1;270(21):2598-601.
- (28) Guyatt GH, Sackett DL, Cook DJ. Users' guides to the medical literature. II. How to use an article about therapy or prevention. B. What were the results and will they help me in caring for my patients? Evidence-Based Medicine Working Group. *JAMA* 1994 Jan 5;271(1):59-63.

- (29) Higgins JPT, Green S. Cochrane Handbook for Systematic Reviews of Interventions Version 5.0.1 [updated September 2008]. The Cochrane Collaboration. 2008.
- (30) Hozo SP, Djulbegovic B, Hozo I. Estimating the mean and variance from the median, range, and the size of a sample. BMC Med Res Methodol 2005;5(1):13.
- (31) ECRI Evidence-based Practice Center. Esophageal doppler ultrasound-based cardiac output monitoring for real-time therapeutic management of hospitalized patients. A review. Agency of Healthcare Research and Technology. 2007 Jan. Contract No. 290-02-0019. 2007.
- (32) Drummond MF, Sculpher MJ, Torrance GW, O'Brien BJ, Stoddart GL. Methods for the economic evaluation of health care programs. 2005.
- (33) Lowson KV, Drummond MF, Bishop JM. Costing new services: long-term domiciliary oxygen therapy. Lancet 1981 May 23;1(8230):1146-9.
- (34) Grupo de Elaboración Validación de Instrumentos de Evaluación de la Calidad de los productos de Agencias/Unidades de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias (GEVIEC). Instrumentos metodológicos para la evaluación de productos de las Agencias de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias. Madrid: Plan Nacional para el SNS del MSC. Unidad de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias. Agencia Laín Entralgo. Informes de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias: UETS Nº 2006/01. 2008.
- (35) López-Bastida J, Oliva J, Antoñanzas F, García-Altés A, Gisbert R, Mar J, et al. Propuesta de guía para la evaluación económica aplicada a las tecnologías sanitarias. Madrid: Plan Nacional para el SNS del MSC. Servicio de Evaluación del Servicio Canario de la Salud. Informes de Evaluación de Tecnologías Sanitarias: SESCS Nº 2006/22. 2008.
- (36) Díez del Val I. Bypass gástrico abierto o laparoscópico: comparación de costes. Cir Esp 2004;75(5):299-300.
- (37) Gómez A, Barrios B, Taibo MA, Exposito A, Gomez J, Rias S. Valor (beneficio/coste) de la cirugía laparoscópica en contraste con la abierta. Comparación de costes. Cirugía 2005;3.

- (38) Briggs A, Sculpher M, Dawson J, Fitzpatrick R, Murray D, Malchau H. The use of probabilistic decision models in technology assessment : the case of total hip replacement. *Appl Health Econ Health Policy* 2004;3(2):79-89.
- (39) Briggs A, Claxton K, Sculpher M. *Decision Modelling for Health Economic Evaluation*. 1st ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2006.
- (40) de Verteuil RM, Hernandez RA, Vale L. Economic evaluation of laparoscopic surgery for colorectal cancer. *Int J Technol Assess Health Care* 2007;23(4):464-72.
- (41) Gurusamy KS, Samraj K, Fusai G, Davidson BR. Robot assistant for laparoscopic cholecystectomy. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2009;(1):CD006578.
- (42) Ng SS, Lee JF, Yiu RY, Li JC, Hon SS. Telerobotic-assisted laparoscopic abdominoperineal resection for low rectal cancer: report of the first case in Hong Kong and China with an updated literature review. *World J Gastroenterol* 2007 May 7;13(17):2514-8.
- (43) Draaisma WA, Buskens E, Bais JE, Simmermacher RK, Rijnhart-de Jong HG, Broeders IA, et al. Randomized clinical trial and follow-up study of cost-effectiveness of laparoscopic versus conventional Nissen fundoplication. *Br J Surg* 2006 Jun;93(6):690-7.
- (44) Jayne DG, Guillou PJ, Thorpe H, Quirke P, Copeland J, Smith AM, et al. Randomized trial of laparoscopic-assisted resection of colorectal carcinoma: 3-year results of the UK MRC CLASICC Trial Group. *J Clin Oncol* 2007 Jul 20;25(21):3061-8.
- (45) Dharia Patel SP, Steinkampf MP, Whitten SJ, Malizia BA. Robotic tubal anastomosis: surgical technique and cost effectiveness. *Fertil Steril* 2008 Oct;90(4):1175-9.
- (46) Rodgers AK, Goldberg JM, Hammel JP, Falcone T. Tubal anastomosis by robotic compared with outpatient minilaparotomy. *Obstet Gynecol* 2007 Jun;109(6):1375-80.
- (47) Advincula AP, Xu X, Goudeau S, Ransom SB. Robot-assisted laparoscopic myomectomy versus abdominal myomectomy: a comparison of short-term surgical outcomes and immediate costs. *J Minim Invasive Gynecol* 2007 Nov;14(6):698-705.
- (48) Joshi GP. Intraoperative fluid restriction improves outcome after major elective gastrointestinal surgery. *Anesth Analg* 2005 Aug;101(2):601-5.

- (49) Pearse R, Dawson D, Fawcett J, Rhodes A, Grounds RM, Bennett ED. Early goal-directed therapy after major surgery reduces complications and duration of hospital stay. A randomised, controlled trial [ISRCTN38797445]. Crit Care 2005;9(6):R687-R693.
- (50) Kehlet H, Wilmore DW. Multimodal strategies to improve surgical outcome. Am J Surg 2002 Jun;183(6):630-41.